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ABSTRACT

This journal contains the following articles: "Teachers' Perceptions of the Supports and Resources Needed to Prepare English Language Learners for the Future" (Douglas Fisher); "Exploring the Learning Styles of Russian-Speaking Students of English as a Second Language" (Ann C. Wintergerst and Andrea DeCapua); "New Voices in the Classroom: Nonnative English-Speaking Professionals in the Field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages" (Lia D. Kambi-Stein); "Confessions of a Nonnative English-Speaking Professional" (Jun Liu); "Teaching in Kindergarten Through Grade 12 Programs: Perceptions of Native and Nonnative English-Speaking Practitioners" (Lia D. Kambi-Stein, Annette Aagard, Angelica Ching, Myoung-Soon Ashley Paik, and Linda Sasser); "Nativism, the Native Speaker Construct, and Minority Immigrant Women Teachers of English as a Second Language" (Nuzhat Amin); "Autonomy and Collaboration in Teacher Education: Journal Sharing among Native and Nonnative English-Speaking Teachers" (Aya Matsuda and Paul Kei Matsuda); "Collaboration between Native and Nonnative English-Speaking Educators" (Luciana Carvalho de Oliveira and Sally Richardson); "Diary Studies: The Voices of Nonnative English Speakers in a Master of Arts Program in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages" (Elis Lee and Loren Lew); "Issues in Hiring Nonnative English-Speaking Professionals to Teach English as a Second Language" (Kathleen Flynn and Goedele Gulikers); "Using Fairy Tales to Develop Reading and Writing Skills" (Maria Palmira Massi and Adriana Marcela Bevenuto); "Six Pronunciation Priorities for the Beginning Student" (Judy Gilbert); and "Self-Monitoring, Self-Help, and the Route to Intelligible Speech" (Sue Miller). Seven book reviews are also included. (Papers contain references.) (SM)

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The
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EDITOR'S NOTE

We are pleased to present our readers with the 13.1 (2001) issue of the journal. This issue contains a wealth of information designed to be of relevance and interest to our readership.

In the opening section, we present two feature articles. The first of these, by Douglas Fisher, reports on a survey of K-6 teachers' perceptions of the supports and resources they need to teach English language learners. Following this article is Ann Wintergerst and Andrea DeCapua's investigation into the learning style preferences of college and university-level Russian-speaking students. Both of these articles address CATESOL's mission to "promote excellence in education for English language learners and a high quality professional environment for their teachers."

The Theme Articles section of the journal is dedicated to the nonnative English-speaking (NNES) professional. This section opens with an introduction by Lía D. Kamhi-Stein, this issue's theme editor. In it, she traces the development of interest in this topic from its beginnings as a caucus in CATESOL's parent organization, TESOL, to its current status as a Special Interest Group in CATESOL. The following theme submissions cluster in several areas. The first of these concerns NNES practitioners teaching in English as a Second language (Amin; Kamhi-Stein, Aagard, Ching, Paik, & Sasser) and Applied Linguistics (Liu) settings. In these articles, the authors report on the self-perceptions of NNES practitioners and the challenges they face due to their ethnic background and NNES status. The second area of emphasis is NES-NNES collaboration (Matsuda & Matsuda; Carvalho de Oliveira & Richardson). These articles present case study evidence of successful collaborative efforts and lay the groundwork for those engaging in such collaboration. The third area addressed is the needs of NNES participants in MA TESOL programs (Lee & Lew). Using diary journal data, the authors track the experiences of these program participants and make recommendations for more successfully addressing their needs. A fourth and final area is that of hiring practices (Flynn & Gulikers). Using a question and answer format, the authors unveil the concerns of program administrators vis-à-vis NNES educators and suggest strategies that NNES educators should adopt when seeking employment. The assembled articles address CATESOL's mission to "promote appreciation of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds" and argue strongly for increased recognition of the strengths our NNES peers bring to the profession. We are most grateful to Lía for her hard work and diligence in bringing this theme section to fruition. Forthcoming in the Theme Articles section of the journal are the issues of the Generation 1.5 student (guest edited by Patricia Porter, Sugie Goen, Deborah Swanson, and Deborah Van Dommelen) and adult literacy (guest edited by Gail Weinstein).

Following Theme Articles is the Exchange section, containing shorter submissions on issues, techniques, and classroom practices. The first Exchange piece (Massi & Benvenuto) discusses using fairy tales to develop adult students' reading and writing skills. This issue's Exchange also highlights pronunciation with two articles. The first of these (Gilbert) addresses an agenda for prioritizing "common core" pronunciation features when teaching beginning learners. Complementing this article is the submission by Miller discussing the importance of overtly addressing self-monitoring skills and strategies in the pronunciation curriculum as a route to increased student intelligibility.

The final Reviews section is edited by Linda Jensen, who assumed duties as Book Review editor with this issue. Linda has compiled three reviews of teacher resource texts (Reid, Ikeda, and Vongpumivitch). These texts examine the controversy surrounding the bilingual education of children, the importance of discourse analysis in the language classroom, and factors contributing to success in English language teaching. In addition, Linda presents four reviews of ESL textbooks in the areas of pronunciation (Lawson), reading (McKibban), multi-skills basal preparation (Kim), and literacy (Mas).

As many CATESOL members may already know, this issue is the final one produced under the editorship of Donna Brinton and Robby Ching. Editing *The CATESOL Journal* has been a wonderful exerience and we are grateful for the opportunity to have served CATESOL in this capacity. It is gratifying to have played a role in the creation of the journal's theme section, its recent redesign, and its acceptance in the ERIC and LLBA abstracting services. All of the above contribute to the broader dissemination of the journal and to its growing reputation in the field. Our work with the journal has also given us the chance to interact with our fellow ESL professionals through board meetings, conferences, and discussions with potential contributors. We are especially appreciative of the support we have received from the CATESOL Board, the journal's Editorial Advisory Board, and its Publication Chair.

Assuming the editorship as of issue 14.1 (2002) are Kate Kinsella and Mark Roberge of San Francisco State University. We hand the journal over to Kate and Mark with full confidence that they will carry out the job with new energy and dedication. We look forward to the fresh perspective they will bring to the journal's editorship and wish them the best of luck.

Donna Brinton
Co-editor

Robby Ching
Co-editor

The
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DOUGLAS FISHER
San Diego State University

Teachers' Perceptions of the Supports and Resources Needed to Prepare English Language Learners for the Future

■ **A survey of elementary school teachers in Southern California was conducted by mail to identify their perceptions of supports and resources that were necessary and available for the education of English language learners (ELs) within their classrooms. A total of 306 usable surveys was returned (61%). The findings indicated that while many resources were available, others such as materials, training, access to paraprofessionals, support for release time for meetings, parental support, and contact with bilingual educators were less available. Future professional development activities for teachers serving ELs can be successful if they take into account these perceived needs of teachers.**

What will the workplace of 2025 be like? How can the students of today be prepared for tomorrow? Clearly early school experiences, including literacy education, will influence the quality of adult life for our students (Feinberg & Soltis, 1992; Oakes & Lipton, 1990). There is little debate regarding a school's responsibility to prepare its learners for the future. Business leaders have become increasingly critical of schools as they see inadequately educated young people entering the workforce (Wilson & Daviss, 1994). These business leaders, as well as parents and community members, expect graduates who can solve problems, think critically, work as team members, and make clear judgments. Schools are preparatory in nature, and our communities are beginning to hold them responsible for preparing youngsters for adult life (U.S. Department of Education, 1994).

One area of education that has attracted significant debate is the education of ELs (e.g., August & Hakuta, 1998; Flood, Lapp, Tinajero, & Hurley, 1996; Penedes, 1997). As the number of students involved grows rapidly, so does the intensity of the debate. In California, for example, the number of ELs increased 250% between 1982 and 1997 (California Department of Education, 1999). By the year 2000, there were estimated to be more than 5 million ELs, ages 5 to 14, in U.S.

schools (National Center for Education Statistics, 1993). Discussions about student placement as well as about the focus of English language programs have been especially contentious (Clair, 1995; Mora, 1999; Statham, 1995; Torres, 1994).

The passage of California's Proposition 227 (Unz & Tuchman, 1997) turned the focus to placement rather than instruction. Prior to the passage of this proposition, approximately 29% of California's ELs were in bilingual education programs, meaning that students received instruction in their home language for a portion of the school day. An additional 22% of California's ELs received home language support, meaning that their instruction was in English and was supplemented by an instructional aide or teacher who spoke the home language of the student (California Department of Education, 1999). In addition to these service delivery models, dual language instruction was also advocated prior to the passage of Proposition 227 (Thomas & Collier, 1997-1998). In dual language instruction, native speakers of English and native speakers of Spanish are educated together and all groups of students learn both English and Spanish, for example. Thus, every student in the class is learning a language in addition to the one spoken at home.

Following the passage of Proposition 227, "Structured English Immersion" was introduced. This one-year intensive program in English is intended to bring students to "reasonable fluency" or a "good working knowledge" of English (Unz & Tuchman, 1997). Thus, except when a parent requests a waiver for continued bilingual education, many ELs are being educated in mainstream classes earlier than their predecessors. As a result, increased numbers of general education teachers are challenged with implementing the California English Language Development Standards (California Department of Education, Standards, Curriculum, and Assessment Division, 1999) as well as the California English Language Arts Standards (California Department of Education, Standards, Curriculum, and Assessment Division, 1998).

While there are many resources available for regular classroom teachers (e.g., Canney, Kennedy, Schroeder, & Miles, 1999; Herrell, 2000), little research has addressed what these classroom teachers need or want as they attempt to prepare second language ELs for the workplace of tomorrow. In fact, an ERIC search revealed little research investigating the point of view of classroom teachers on this issue.

Method

In direct reaction to this lack of information, this study sought to investigate the perceptions of teachers dealing with ELs. Specifically, the study sought to answer the question: What are the perceptions of teachers in self-contained classrooms regarding the supports and resources needed to prepare ELs to be successful, contributing participants in the world of tomorrow?

Participants and Mailing Procedure

Participants for this study were general education public school teachers in self-contained classes, grades kindergarten through fifth, in Southern California. A total of 500 teachers was randomly selected from the county database of credentialed teachers. Similar to the study done by Wolery, Werts, Caldwell, Snyder, and Lisowski (1995), a personal letter was sent to each participant's address with the one-page survey (see the following section for more details about the survey), a complimentary gourmet tea bag, and a stamped return envelope. Each survey was coded with a three-digit number that identified the respondent. Two weeks after the original survey was sent, a post-card reminder was sent to those who had not yet responded. Two weeks following the post-card, another copy of the survey was sent to any participant who had still not responded.

Instrument

The survey designed for the study contained demographic and content-specific questions. It was divided into three sections and was printed on both sides of a single sheet of paper. Section one requested basic demographic data about the participants, including the number of years teaching, grade currently taught, number of languages spoken in the classroom, formal training in English language development, and the number of ELs in the classroom. Section two contained 20 supports or resources that have been cited as potentially important in meeting the needs of ELs. Respondents were asked to make two binary (yes/no) designations: (a) whether each support or resource was available, and (b) whether each support or resource was necessary. Section three contained five questions. Question one asked respondents to indicate their perceived success in educating ELs. Choices on this four-point, Likert-type question ranged from "extremely successful" to "extremely unsuccessful." Questions two and three were open-ended questions and solicited information about supports that were critical in the education of ELs and problems or difficulties that have arisen. The fourth question allowed respondents to grade, on an A to F letter-grade scale, the success they have had with students who were ELs in their classrooms. The final question was open-ended and asked teachers to complete the following sentence, "I think students who are acquiring English should be taught..."

Analysis

Survey responses were quantified to determine frequency of responses made by teachers. Data from the surveys were used for measures of central tendency and to create frequency tables. Data from the open-ended questions were categorized using a constant comparative method (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). A number of coding categories was identified following multiple reviews of the data (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). Each of these categories was named and quotes that typified the category were identified. For example, as the researcher reviewed the data, it became clear that the data on critical supports clustered into four main categories: parental support, primary language support, classroom support, and administrative support. In addition, direct quotes were obtained from the surveys.

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Limitations

Three important limitations must be discussed prior to reviewing the findings. First, this study was limited to one geographic region of the U.S. This region is diverse, large, and represents urban, suburban, and rural school districts, and as such may be representative of many communities in the U.S. However, the many languages spoken in this region may limit our ability to generalize these findings to communities in which one or two languages predominate.

Second, this study was a survey and was therefore at risk for volunteer bias and for a trend to socially appropriate answers. To address these potential limitations, a large sample size was used and procedures to ensure a high return rate were implemented. In addition, 10 teachers from 10 different schools who participated in the survey were asked to review the findings section. Nine of the 10 agreed to participate in this "member check." Each of these teachers was provided a draft copy of the findings. A group meeting was held with the researcher to discuss the findings and consider possible recommendations. The discussion lasted approximately 75 minutes but did not result in changes to the findings section.

Third, this study focused on self-reported perceptions and beliefs. The teachers who completed the survey may not have enough experience in the field to always make appropriate judgments. For example, on the question about student success, it is unclear how teachers determined student success. However, self-report data can be helpful in planning professional development activities focused on attitudes versus skills.

Findings

Response Rate

Seventy eight percent (390) of the surveys were returned. Of these 390 teachers, 84 did not teach ELs in their classrooms and were therefore disregarded in the analysis. Thus the useable sample of teachers was 306, or 61% of the total population. This sample consisted of teachers who ranged in experience from 2 to 29 years, with an average of 7.5 years. Ninety-four percent were female. The number of teachers that responded per grade level was fairly consistent: kindergarten (44), first grade (53), second grade (55), third grade (51), fourth grade (54), and fifth grade (49). The teachers identified 26 different languages spoken by the students in their classrooms.

Need for and Availability of Supports or Resources

The survey identified 20 potential supports or resources that were grouped into five areas: training, material and physical resources, personal support, additional personnel, and meetings. Respondents were asked to indicate whether they had access to each resource or support and whether they felt it was needed. The data presented in Table 1 identify differences between the supports and resources that teachers believe are necessary and those to which they have access.

Table 1
Differences Between Resources and Support Needed and Available

Item	*Needed (%)*	*Available (%)*	*Difference (%)*
1. Beginning of the year inservice training on teaching English language learners	76	38	38
2. Regular and ongoing inservice training on teaching English language learners	72	37	35
3. Opportunities to attend conferences on teaching English language learners	77	67	10
4. Access to university courses on English language learners	85	81	4
5. Access to professional journals	75	68	7
6. Written information on how to adapt classroom and curriculum	90	71	19
7. Use of supplemental materials and supplies	94	84	10
8. Support from the family of the students	95	64	31
9. Support from classroom peers	94	94	0
10. A principal who supports my teaching philosophy and approaches	95	94	1
11. Help by volunteers in the classroom	85	57	28
12. A part-time teacher's aide	88	65	23
13. A full-time teacher's aide	57	9	48
14. A part-time peer tutor	58	25	33
15. A full-time peer tutor	36	2	34
16. Contact with a language specialist	90	88	2
17. Contact with a psychologist	80	73	7
18. Contact with a bilingual educator	76	53	23
19. Ongoing meetings with bilingual educators to discuss English language learners	76	38	38
20. Release time for meetings	84	28	56

The data are also presented in Table 2 in four categories: "I have it and it's needed," "I have it and it's not needed," "I don't have it and it's needed," and "I don't have it and it isn't needed."

Table 2
Percentage of Teachers Indicating Supports or Resources Were Necessary and/or Available

Item	*I have it and it's needed (%)*	*I have it and it's not needed (%)*	*I don't have it and it's needed (%)*	*I don't have it and it isn't needed (%)*
1. Beginning of the year inservice training on teaching English language learners	38	0	38	24
2. Regular and ongoing inservice training on teaching English language learners	32	5	40	23
3. Opportunities to attend conferences on teaching English language learners	57	20	20	3
4. Access to university courses on English language learners	70	11	15	4
5. Access to professional journals	59	9	16	16
6. Written information on how to adapt classroom and curriculum	65	6	25	4
7. Use of supplemental materials and supplies	79	5	15	1
8. Support from the family of the students	61	3	34	2
9. Support from classroom peers	89	5	5	1
10. A principal who supports my teaching philosophy and approaches	89	5	6	0
11. Help by volunteers in the classroom	52	5	33	10
12. A part-time teacher's aide	63	2	25	10
13. A full-time teacher's aide	9	0	48	43
14. A part-time peer tutor	22	3	36	39
15. A full-time peer tutor	2	0	34	64
16. Contact with a language specialist	83	5	7	5
17. Contact with a psychologist	65	8	15	12
18. Contact with a bilingual educator	51	2	25	22
19. Ongoing meetings with bilingual educators to discuss English language learners	36	2	40	22
20. Release time for meetings	27	1	57	15

As shown in Table 1, the respondents perceived several supports or resources to be extremely necessary. Ninety percent or more of the teachers indicated that having written information on how to adapt the classroom and curriculum, access to supplemental materials and supplies, contact with a language specialist, and support from classroom peers, families, and the principal were necessary in the education of ELs. Of these most significantly identified support needs, support from the family of the student was perceived to be least available followed by written information on how to adapt the classroom and curriculum and access to supplemental materials and supplies. The other extremely necessary supports were perceived to be more available.

The largest difference between the supports available and the resources needed was the item release time for meetings, followed by the items—a full-time teacher's aide, beginning of the year inservices, ongoing meetings with bilingual educators, and regular and ongoing inservices.

In terms of needs that are being met, principal and peer support were perceived to be both very necessary and available. Similarly, contact with a language specialist and access to university courses on ELs were both deemed necessary and available.

Table 2 provides another view of the perceptions of teachers regarding supports available and resources needed. This table allowed for an analysis of supports that were being delivered but were not necessary as well as supports that were not provided and not needed. The resource that was most often available but perceived to be unneeded was "opportunities to attend conferences on teaching English language learners." It does not appear, however, that teachers do not want information and training since 38% of the respondents wanted beginning of the year inservices and 40% wanted regular and ongoing inservices. Rather it seems that the conferences were perceived to be less useful to these teachers than other forms of professional development.

In-class support was a resource that divided the teachers in this study. While many teachers indicated that they needed but did not have access to full-time teacher's assistants or peer tutors, an almost equal number indicated that this type of support was not necessary. Dividing these three items by grade level revealed that primary grade teachers (kindergarten through second) saw more benefit in teachers' assistants while upper grade teachers (third through fifth) saw more benefit in the use of peers. No other items on the survey could be easily differentiated by grade level taught.

Evaluating the Experiences of Teaching ELs

Teachers in this study generally believed that they were moderately successful. A total of 27% indicated that they were extremely successful, 54% indicated that they were moderately successful, 16% indicated that they were moderately unsuccessful, and 3% indicated that they were extremely unsuccessful. A post-hoc review of the three percent of the teachers who indicated that they were extremely unsuccessful revealed that all nine of them had less than five years of experience in the classroom. Two of the nine had four different languages spoken in the classroom and one of the nine had seven languages spoken in the classroom. It is important to note, however, that not all the newer teachers indicated that they were "extremely unsuccessful." Twenty-eight teachers with less than five years experience in the classroom rated themselves as "extremely successful" in educating ELs.

Another way of assessing success as perceived by the teachers in this study was through the letter-grade question on the success of ELs in the classroom. While the previous question focused on the individual respondent's experience, another question asked the teachers to rate the whole school. The overall grade point average was 3.12, on a 4-point scale. The letter grade of F was not assigned by any of the teachers.

Critical Supports and Potential Barriers

As for critical supports, the data clustered into five areas: materials, administrative support, parental support, primary language support, and classroom support. Each of these areas influenced the teachers' ability to effectively provide quality literacy instruction for their students learning English.

Materials. The most common support or resource identified was classroom materials. These materials consisted of access to multi-level books, books in various languages, basal readers in Spanish, computer programs that support early literacy learning, and supplemental classroom materials such as photographs to support content area texts and music that reinforces lesson plans. Regarding books, a first grade teacher wrote, "Buy books, books, books. There are no where [sic] near enough of them to support all the languages and reading levels of my students." A fourth grade teacher commented on the relationship between the training she received and her access to materials when she wrote, "I got a lot from the training that the district did at the beginning of the year, but I don't have any of the books that they used as models. To be successful, we'll need both consistent inservices and materials, especially books." A fifth grade teacher believed that she could successfully meet the literacy needs of her students if she had access to appropriate instructional materials, including "computer programs to reinforce English speech, books that are written in two languages that students could use during independent reading, and center activities that reinforced content but were less language dense."

Administrative support. The second most common area was administrative in nature. Teachers indicated that they needed support from their principals and access to beginning-of-the-year and regular inservices. As a second grade teacher reported, "My principal is very good at providing us resources and he supports our efforts to try new things with our language learners. He observes classes regularly and talks with us about making sure that students new to English in our classrooms are participating in our literacy instruction. Based on this feedback and the trainings that he has arranged, I now plan lessons that address a very diverse range of needs."

Parental support. The next most common critical area centered on parental support. This issue was identified in the binary choice items. When the respondents had the opportunity to respond to this open-ended question, the issue of parental support was further clarified. Teachers most often wrote that the parent support they most needed was better communication. A third grade teacher wrote, "I feel so bad because I can't explain the homework to Razia's parents. The language barrier between us is very wide. They respect me so much, but I don't feel that I get my homework instructions across to them." A few teachers were also concerned that parents were unable to reinforce their child's education via homework because of work demands, including late hours and multiple part-time jobs. In addition to the issue of communication between teachers and family members and homework completion, several teachers indicated that parents were not comfortable with school involvement projects because they did not have an understanding of English. One of the third grade teachers wrote about the family literacy project at her school: "We couldn't be successful with our students if we didn't help their parents become more literate. We have weekly parent literacy nights at our school. During these, we provide parents with books and activities that they can do with their children at home. I have several students whose parents regularly come to the parent nights. This support helps me be more effective and helps the child learn English."

Primary language support. The fourth most common area identified was primary language support for students whose home language was not English. Examples included resource teachers, paraprofessionals, and peers who spoke the languages of the students and who were regularly available for quick translations, friendly conversation, and response to questions. About half the teachers who identified primary language support as an important issue indicated that the students needed this support to maintain their fluency in their home language. A fifth grade teacher wrote, "Get help from people who speak the languages of your students. They can help you understand the students so much better and be a better teacher for them." A first grade teacher reported that peer tutors from the middle school provided conversations with her students that she could never have. She said, "We have peer tutors come from the middle school to work with our first graders. Most of these kids have brothers and sisters at our school so they know us. We use the middle school kids to provide bilingual language models and to allow our young students time to talk. I know some Spanish, but I have students who speak Hmong, Vietnamese, and Cambodian in my class. These older kids really help out!"

Classroom support. The final area identified by the respondents focused on classroom support. Included within this area were paraprofessionals, language brokers, and curriculum accommodations and modifications. As a fourth grade teacher wrote, "Advocate for yourself—get an aide, full-time if you can. All your students will benefit, but especially those who are learning English." A second grade teacher recommended that we "teach the students to help one another. Using language brokers, you can get a lot more information covered quickly." In terms of curriculum accommodations and modifications, the teachers who identified this need shared a belief that someone else knew more about curriculum support for ELs. As a first grade teacher wrote, "You have to have accommodations. These students need curriculum support to do well in class, not just aides." A fourth grade teacher wrote, "Hold your expectations high, but let students show you what they know in lots of different ways."

Barriers in Educating ELs

The respondents also identified four types of barriers or problems that they have faced in educating ELs in the classroom. The first and most common concern centered on classroom materials. Consistent with the critical supports identified above, the teachers in this study overwhelmingly indicated their need for more books and other materials to provide appropriate literacy instruction for ELs. The second most common concern was also a reflection of the critical supports—parental support.

The third area of concern was the political environment in which these teachers taught. Several teachers identified the California voter initiative, Proposition 227 (Unz & Tuchman, 1997), as one of the main causes of this problem. From the responses in general, and from these comments specifically, it is clear that the lack of a clear and consistent message about the education of ELs has caused confusion and concern for many of these teachers. As a fifth grade teacher wrote, "I hate being worried about political attacks because I teach LEP [Limited English Proficient] students." A kindergarten teacher wrote, "There are too many debates about this, we need to get in there and do our very best for our students." A second grade teacher wrote, "The theories are being debated while I have to figure out what to do in my classroom." One final comment on this topic was from a third grade teacher: "Problem? What should I do? I hope I'm doing the right thing. I go to all the trainings that are offered."

A final barrier or problem identified by the respondents was time. Like all teachers, these teachers noted that there just wasn't enough time in the day to do all the things they wanted to do. In the same vein, they requested additional time from paraprofessionals and language specialists. Several also wrote that they felt the need to create more time in their classroom so that they could provide one-on-one instruction for their students. As one of the second grade teachers wrote, "I've had to change the way I teach during the literacy block to meet my students needs. Now I use center activities[1] as my grouping strategy so that I get time each day with homogeneous groups of students for guided reading. The rest of their day is heterogeneous groups so that students get language models and good peer interactions."

Recommendations for the Education of ELs

The final question on the survey asked respondents to complete the sentence starter, "I think students who are acquiring English should be taught..."

The responses to this item were consistent with the rest of the survey. Table 3 provides a rank ordered list of items identified from this question.

Table 3
Rank Ordered Responses to the Prompt
"I think students acquiring English should be taught"

Rank	*Response*
1	...with more books.
2	...in a print rich environment.
3	...in a safe, low affective filter environment.
4	...with some additional support in their primary language.
5	...surrounded by fluent peers.
6	...relevant vocabulary.
7	...in sheltered classrooms with trained teachers.
8	...with many interesting, relevant, and hands-on lessons.
9	...in a balance between English and their own language.
10	...in English all day.
11	...in a two-way bilingual classroom.
12	...with lots of visual materials.

Because the question asked how ELs should be taught, respondents focused on instruction rather than issues of parent involvement, philosophy, time, or administrative support. Interestingly, the most common response was "with more books." Teachers also indicated they would provide a print-rich environment and a safe, welcoming, or comfortable classroom. The issue of primary language support was also raised in this question, as was peer support. However, this question is the first time that the respondents identified vocabulary instruction as a need. They also recommended that instruction should be balanced, interesting, and contain lots of visuals and hands-on activities.

This question was also the first time that the respondents provided input on their recommendations for placement. Certainly, they all could have written that ELs should be educated in bilingual classrooms. However, the general education teachers in this study were more interested in providing students a "balance between English and other languages," as a third grade teacher wrote. Although less common, 25 of the 306 respondents indicated that ELs "should be taught in English all day" (fifth grade teacher).

Discussion

The findings from this study indicate that there were generally fewer supports and resources available than were needed. Some areas—such as principal support, peer support, and contact with a language specialist—were considered both necessary and available. In other areas—such as access to teacher's aides, release time for meetings, and inservices—teachers perceived they needed significantly more support and resources than were available.

The survey form developed for this study could also be used in a school or school district to assess needs and resources. For example, a district-level employee for bilingual education could use this survey instrument to determine the need for resources and training opportunities, as could a school principal wishing to assess needed resources and supports. The information thus obtained could be used to formulate a request for assistance from the district or to prepare a grant proposal for materials or professional development.

The 306 teachers in this study reported that administrative and peer support were critical components of their success. They felt they had a great deal of access to these supports. Access to beginning-of-the-year and ongoing inservices was also reported to be a very important resource that teachers did not feel was adequately supplied. Interestingly, the finding that conference attendance was not perceived to be as valuable deserves further consideration. It may be that large conferences are perceived to be less valuable because of the research or theory focus. The teachers in this study seemed focused on instructional issues for students who were learning English.

The State of California has spent a considerable amount of money on teacher education in the area of English language development. Between 1999 and 2001, approximately 15 million dollars were spent on training related to this topic.[2] Professional Development Institutes for English Language Development (ELD) offer one or two week institutes with 80 hours of follow-up sessions during the school year. This model seems consistent with the wishes of the teachers who participated in this study. ELD Institutes in the future may be wise to consider the types of supports and resources that this group of teachers found most useful and design specific training events around these issues.

As for recommendations, several significant findings emerge from this study. Even though most of the teachers reported being successful or very successful with their students, they requested additional books and teaching materials. Teachers were less interested in the political and philosophical debate about English language learners than in the availability of many more books for their students, both in their classroom and in the school library. Future staff development activities might focus on the use of multi-leveled texts and texts that present information in more than one language. In addition, the upcoming textbook adoptions could be influenced by the expressed needs of teachers. For example, a group of teachers may argue for ELD textbook adoptions with generous amounts of authentic children's literature, or with connections to Spanish language development, or with specific lesson plans that utilize Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English

(SDAIE), an instructional approach to teaching academic content to English language learners.

Naturally, the findings related to student success from this study are limited to those reported by the teachers. Thus, it may also be interesting to followup with the participants in this study and examine their success with students. Interesting questions might include: How do teachers define student success (grades, standards-based assessments, teacher opinion); are the measures of success different for native speakers and ELs; and which teachers and instructional models facilitate greater student success?

Another important implication of this study was the need for additional parent support and for additional ways to effectively communicate with non-English speaking family members. The teachers in this study indicated a significant need for more interpreters and translators to better communicate with family members, especially about homework issues. Similarly, these teachers desired ways to invite families to participate in school activities, including volunteer activities. They felt that with language support the family members of ELs would feel welcome in their schools.

Future research should focus specifically on the preparation being provided general education teachers who have ELs in their classrooms. It is important to know the types of preparation they believe are most useful and the timing necessary for these trainings. In addition to the preparation needs, further research could focus on the roles of the paraprofessionals in these classrooms. While there is a concern that these paraprofessionals will provide the majority of the instruction to the students who are learning English, these teachers perceived the paraprofessional's role as generally unimportant. This could be because self-contained classroom teachers are not fully aware of how to use well-prepared paraprofessionals. Finally, additional research needs to be conducted to determine indicators of ELs' success.

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Endnote

[1] Center activities are small group activities that students typically complete together without the teacher. For more information about center activities, see *Learning Center Activities* (Sima, 1999).

[2] See the following web site for funding information: http://tepd.ucop.edu/tepd/cpdi/eld_home.html.

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Exploring the Learning Styles of Russian-Speaking Students of English as a Second Language

This study investigates the learning styles of college and university Russian-speaking students of English as a second language (ESL) through an analysis of their responses to Reid's (1984) Perceptual Learning Styles Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ), of their responses to a background questionnaire, and of data from oral interviews. The research questions are:

1. What learning styles emerged from Reid's PLSPQ?

2. How well did the PLSPQ findings correspond to the oral interview results?

3. Did the learning style preferences reflect more the students' individual preferences or their cultural traditions?

Findings from the data indicate that the preferred learning style of these Russian-speaking students is kinesthetic, closely followed by auditory. In addition, the results of the data suggest that the learning style preferences of these subjects reflect more their individual learning style preferences than the influence of cultural traditions. Discrepancies, however, arose in the findings among the three elicitation instruments. The article also provides insights into the area of research design and methodology and questions the validity of the PLSPQ.

Learning styles are general tendencies or preferences (R. Oxford, personal communication, February 20, 2000) of individuals with respect to *how* they learn. Ehrman and Oxford (1990) define them as "preferred or habitual patterns of mental functioning and dealing with new information" (p. 311). Not all people enjoy learning in the same way. Some individuals prefer to hear information, others prefer to read it, and still others prefer to do something with the information. According to Ehrman, a learning style can range from a mild preference to a rigid one (as cited in Nam & Oxford, 1998). Within any preferred learning style, an individual may utilize different learning strategies in order to access and assimilate relevant information. Learning strategies that individuals choose are often linked to their learning styles.

Varied models have been used to characterize learning styles. A popular model for educators is Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences, an information-processing framework based on cognitive theory. Gardner (1983, 1993) has proposed that people might possess different degrees of at least seven types of mental functioning or intelligences, each with its own set of abilities. His work investigates the mental processes involved in obtaining, sorting, storing, and utilizing information. Other researchers such as Dunn, Dunn, and Price (1975, 1989), Dunn (1990), and Dunn and Griggs (2000) have focused attention on the instructional and environmental preferences of students.

Regardless of the discipline of the researchers performing the learning styles research, and regardless of which theoretical framework they used, the emphasis has focused primarily on the learning style preferences of native speakers of English (e.g., Dunn, Dunn & Price, 1975, 1989; Dunn & Griggs, 1983; Kolb, 1976; Reinert, 1976). More recently, researchers have investigated the learning style preferences among ethnic groups within the U.S. (e.g., Dunn & Griggs, 1990, 1995; Henry & Pepper, 1990; Jacobs, 1990), the learning style preferences of ESL populations in the U.S. (e.g., Reid, 1987), and the learning style preferences of cultural groups overseas (e.g., Cheng & Banya, 1998; Herbert, 1988).

Our study investigates the learning styles of ESL students by analyzing their responses to Reid's (1984) Perceptual Learning Styles Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ) (see Appendix A for complete PLSPQ text), responses to a background questionnaire (see Appendix B for complete background questionnaire text), and data from oral interviews. The study focuses on Russian-speaking ESL students at the college and university level in the United States, a group of particular interest because of its large-scale immigration to the northeastern U.S. The study also attempts to determine whether participants' learning style preferences reflect more their individual preferences or their cultural traditions. Although our initial intent was to investigate the learning styles of these participants, in the course of the study we expanded and slightly altered our goal to include an investigation of the validity of Reid's PLSPQ.

Learning Styles and Cultural Traditions

Several studies have found links between cultural traditions and learning style preferences (e.g., Cheng & Banya, 1998; Guild, 1994; Heath, 1983; Nelson, 1995; Oxford & Anderson, 1995; Oxford & Green, 1996; Philips, 1983; Reid, 1987; Rossi-Le, 1995; Violand-Sánchez, 1995; Vogt, Jordan & Tharp, 1987). Learning style is frequently defined as individual preference, each person preferring to learn in slightly different ways (Nelson, 1995). Culture, in contrast, implies that which is shared by or common to a group of individuals and emphasizes similarities, not individual differences. These two concepts are linked since members of different cultural groups "*learn how to learn* through the socialization processes that occur in families and friendship groups" (Nelson, 1995, p. 6). In short, there are demonstrable cultural differences in learning style (between-group differences), but within a culture there are many individual differences in learning style (within-group differences) as well.

Similarly, Oxford, Hollaway and Murillo (1992) suggest that cultural influences often play a significant role in the preferred learning styles of members of a given culture. Indeed, Oxford and Anderson (1995) contend:

> Language learning is fully situated within a given cultural context. The student becomes enculturated (apprenticed into a particular learning culture or environment that in many ways reflects the general culture) through classroom activities and through the modeling and coaching of the teacher and many others. (p. 202)

It is indisputable that individuality and culture both play important roles in the choice of learning styles. Reid's (1987) study as well as studies cited in Oxford and Anderson (1995) and in Reid (1995) found that Asian students, particularly Koreans, are very visual. Oxford (1990) summarizes research that shows Hispanic learners are generally auditory learners and many non-Western students favor tactile and kinesthetic learning. Reid (1987) also found that some of the learning style preferences of the participants in her study were related to gender, length of residence in the U.S., academic field of study, and level of education. Nevertheless, one should not assume that learning style preferences can be accurately predicted by cultural backgrounds alone (Brown, 1994; Katz, 1988; Parry, 1996; Reid, 1998).

In a study comparing the learning strategies of immigrants from the former Soviet Union to those of people who have lived in Israel for at least five years, Levine, Reves and Leaver (1996) found distinct differences related to education and culture between the two groups in pre-academic English as a Foreign Language (EFL) courses. With the use of multiple methods, they confirmed that students brought up in a highly structured, uniform educational system such as that found in the Soviet Union developed learning strategies that differed from those developed by students who received a less structured, more democratic education. These findings highlight the important role of cultural-educational factors in the students' development of language learning strategies, which in turn may impact their learning style preferences.

The Study

Research Questions

Given the wide range of models of learning styles and the great variety of learning styles that have been identified, we limited this study to the six learning style preferences that Reid (1987) identified: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile, group learning, and individual learning.

The research questions asked were:

1. What learning styles emerged from Reid's PLSPQ?
2. How well did the PLSPQ findings correspond with the oral interview results?
3. Did learning style preferences reflect more the students' individual preferences or their cultural traditions?

Participants

We selected Russian-speaking ESL students as subjects because even though the number of immigrants from the former Soviet Union has been increasing in the United States, little research has been conducted on this group. Participants were 32 undergraduate Russian-speaking students[1] enrolled in ESL programs at two private institutions of higher learning in metropolitan New York—a major university in New York City (*N*=15) and a small college on Long Island (*N*=17). In order to matriculate, both the university and the college require placement on standardized tests. The university requires a minimum score of 500 on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL),[2] as well as an in-house writing sample and oral interview. The college requirement is an "acceptable" score on the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP).[3] In order to ensure that all participants shared a similar range of English language proficiency, only the Russian-speaking students enrolled in courses for academic credit, intermediate or advanced ESL writing and reading courses, were asked to participate in this study. The 15 university students were enrolled in different sections of these courses. Seven of these students were also taking speaking-listening courses. The 17 college students were enrolled in intermediate or advanced ESL writing-reading courses as well as in speaking-listening courses.

The 32 participants came from different regions of the former Soviet Union: Ukraine (11), Uzbekistan (7), Russia (6), Tajikistan (4), Azerbaijan (1), Kazakhstan (1), Latvia (1), and Turkmenistan (1). On the background questionnaire, Russian was indicated as the primary home language, even when it was a minority language in a region. In cases where the native language of the home region was different, participants still indicated Russian as their first language.

The ages of the 32 participants varied from 18 to 41, with a mean age of 26. The ages of the 15 participants from the university group ranged from 18 to 26, with a mean of 19. The ages of the 17 participants from the college group ranged from 20 to 41, with a mean of 28. Thus, the college participants were considerably older than their university counterparts.

The gender ratio among participants was roughly 3:1 female to male.[4] Of the 32 subjects who participated in the PLSPQ survey, 25 were female (nine university students and 16 college students) and 7 were male (six university students and one college student). Of the 13 students who participated in the oral interview, 10 were female and 3 were male (seven university students and six college students).

The background questionnaire also revealed that the university students had been exposed to EFL and ESL longer than the college students, had been in the U.S. longer, and had studied a wider range of academic majors (with the college students being primarily nursing majors). For the most part, both groups of students came from homes with university-educated parents. Actually, very few of the participants were recent arrivals, or the kind of informants who might be expected to be closer to the cultural preferences of the native country than the host society.

Materials

In addition to the background questionnaire, the two primary data collection instruments were Reid's (1984) learning styles inventory, The Perceptual Learning Styles Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ), and tape-recorded oral interviews. Participants described themselves in a background questionnaire that featured variables such as age, gender, major, number of years English was studied in the home country and in the U.S., the region of the home country where the individual was schooled, years of schooling, and parents' educational levels and occupation both in the home country and in the U.S.

PLSPQ. We selected the PLSPQ because this instrument had been previously normed on high intermediate or advanced ESL classes in university-affiliated English language programs and had been shown to be both reliable and valid (Reid, 1987). Even though the reliability and validity of the PLSPQ instrument was later questioned by Itzen (1995), who provides an in-depth discussion of the reliability and validity of this norming, we nonetheless decided to use the PLSPQ survey instrument for three reasons.

First and most importantly, the PLSPQ continues to be widely used in research, particularly in investigations of cultural differences (Dirksen, 1988; Hyland, 1994; Reid, 1998; Stebbins, 1995; Su, 1995; Sy, 1991). Since we were interested in cultural variables, the instrument appeared particularly appropriate for our needs, especially as we also planned to use oral interviews to gain additional insights into student learning styles.

Second, the PLSPQ was one of only three known normed survey instruments allowing for replication in the ESL/EFL field. The other two are O'Brien's (1990) The Learning Channel Preference Checklist and Oxford's (1995) Style Analysis Survey. The PLSPQ instrument was not as lengthy as these instruments, nor was it as time consuming for classroom data collection.

Finally, the PLSPQ had pre-established cut-off scores for major, minor, and negligible learning style categories. By using the PLSPQ, we believed we would not have to devise our own instrument or determine our own cut-off scores. As our results show, such reasons need to be reassessed in the future. We intend to demonstrate to other researchers that a well-known, widely used, and accepted instrument might not always be as valid as one would expect.

Reid's PLSPQ consists of 30 randomly ordered statements, with five statements for each of the six learning style preferences: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile, group learning, and individual learning. According to Reid

(1987), a visual preference is defined as learning best from seeing words in books, on the chalkboard, and in workbooks. An auditory learning preference is learning from hearing words spoken and from oral explanations. A kinesthetic learning preference is learning best by being involved physically in classroom experiences, while a tactile preference refers to requiring a "hands-on" experience with materials. A group preference refers to learning best by studying with at least one other student or working together with others, while an individual preference refers to learning best by working alone. Students, however, may show a preference for more than one learning style.

Participants respond to each item of the PLSPQ on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Each of the five statements under each learning style has a numerical value of one to five. Reid (1995) suggests adding these numbers together and then multiplying by two to obtain the total score for each learning style. Cut-off scores range from 38 to 50 for a major learning style preference, 25 to 37 for a minor learning style preference, and 0 to 24 for a negligible learning style preference.

Oral Interview. The oral interviews, conducted in English, consisted of a mix of direct and open-ended questions. Among these were questions asking the participants to describe how they had been taught English in the former Soviet Union and what they thought were some of the major similarities and differences with respect to teaching and learning there and in the U.S. Participants were asked to share their thoughts about group work, teacher lectures, and learning styles. In the college interviews, general questions about the overall educational system in the former Soviet Union were added. In short, oral interviews were used to better understand participants' prior and current educational experiences as well as to corroborate their responses on the PLSPQ.

Davis (1995), Eliason (1995), Lazaraton (1995), and Wolfson (1986) point out that a qualitative approach such as that found in an oral interview adds an extra dimension by allowing researchers to explore educational issues often overlooked or unobtainable through quantitative methods. Interviews under the right conditions and properly conducted are a useful tool for understanding how participants view their experiences.

Data Collection Procedures

The background questionnaire and the PLSPQ were administered to the university students in New York City and the college students on Long Island midway through the 1997 fall semester. The teachers in the ESL writing-reading classes were asked to distribute the survey packets to the students in attendance. The packet consisted of the background questionnaire, instructions for participating in the survey that included participant-release forms, and the PLSPQ. The teachers were asked to read the instructions to the students, to allow adequate time to complete the questionnaires, and to answer any questions.

For the oral interviews, the researchers interviewed a sub-sample of the Russian-speaking ESL students who completed the questionnaires.

The 13 participants—7 from the university in New York City and 6 from the college in Long Island—were invited to participate by their respective ESL teachers.

One of the two researchers conducted the interviews, each lasting approximately 15 to 25 minutes, in an office or an empty classroom. The researcher placed a tape recorder between the interviewer and the student. Then, to help the students feel at ease, the researcher exchanged pleasantries before turning on the tape recorder.

Data Analysis Procedures

We used descriptive statistics rather than inferential statistics in order to follow the analysis procedures employed in other studies using the PLSPQ and adhered to Reid's system of reporting major, minor, and negligible learning styles (Reid, 1995). The interview data were analyzed qualitatively and reported in narrative form.

Results

The research questions asked were: (a) What learning styles emerged from Reid's PLSPQ, (b) how well did the PLSPQ findings correspond with the oral interview results, and (c) did the learning style preferences reflect more the students' individual preferences or their cultural traditions?

Research Question One

The raw scores on this survey (see Figure 1) indicated that kinesthetic was the preferred major learning style (25 out of 32) of all Russian-speaking ESL participants, very closely followed by auditory (24 out of 32). Individual work was their preferred minor learning style (18 out of 32), followed by both tactile and visual (15 out of 32). The participants showed negligible preferences for both group learning and individual learning, (4 out of 32 each), followed by visual (3 out of 32). These learning style preference categories are not mutually exclusive; a learner may have more than one learning style preference.

The results revealed that some numerical differences exist between the university group and the college group. For the university participants (see Figure 2), kinesthetic was the preferred major learning style (10 out of 15), followed by auditory (8 out of 15). This contrasted with the college participants (see Figure 3) where auditory was the preferred major learning style (16 out of 17), closely followed by kinesthetic (15 out of 17). There were also differences with respect to minor learning styles. The university group selected visual as their preferred minor learning style (9 out of 15), very closely followed by tactile (8 out of 15), and then auditory and individual learning (7 out of 15 each). The college participants chose individual learning (11 out of 17), followed by group learning (8 out of 17), and then tactile (7 out of 17).

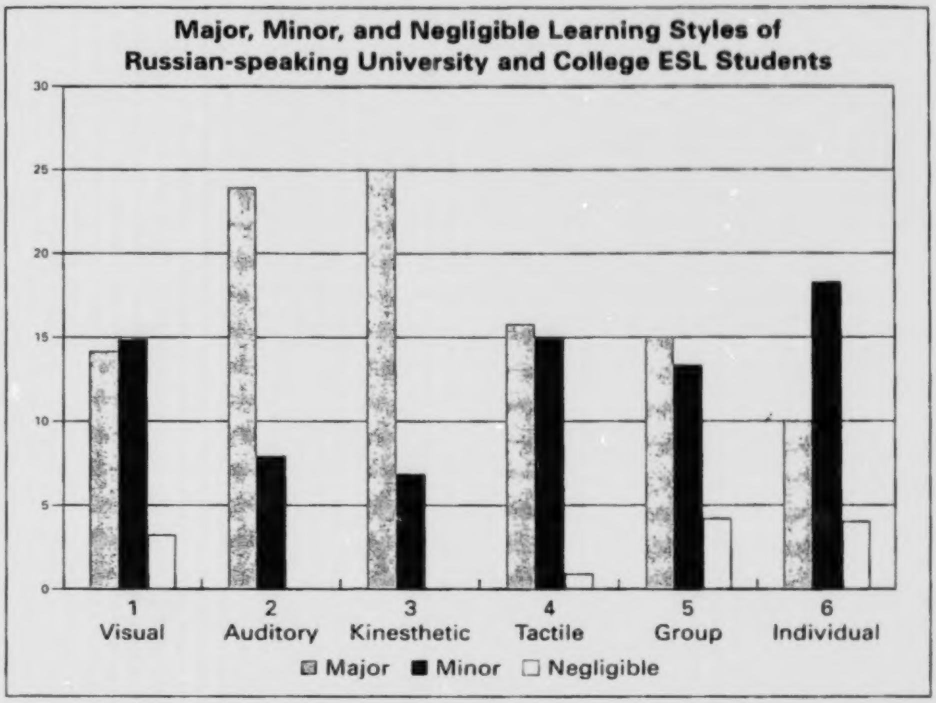

Figure 1. Major, minor, and negligible learning styles of Russian-speaking university and college ESL students.

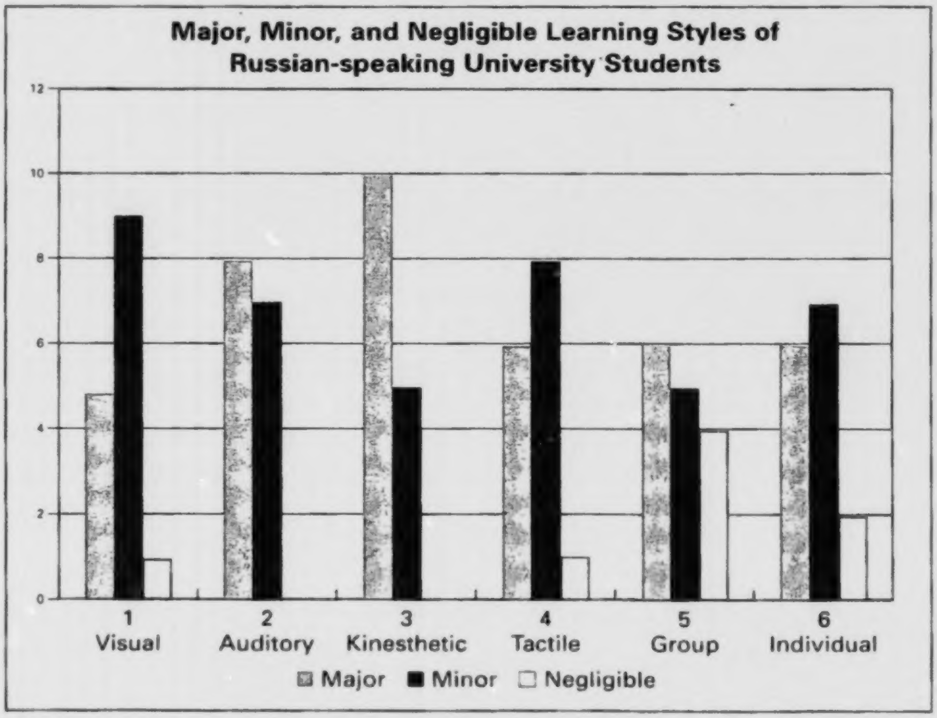

Figure 2. Major, minor, and negligible learning styles of Russian-speaking university ESL students.

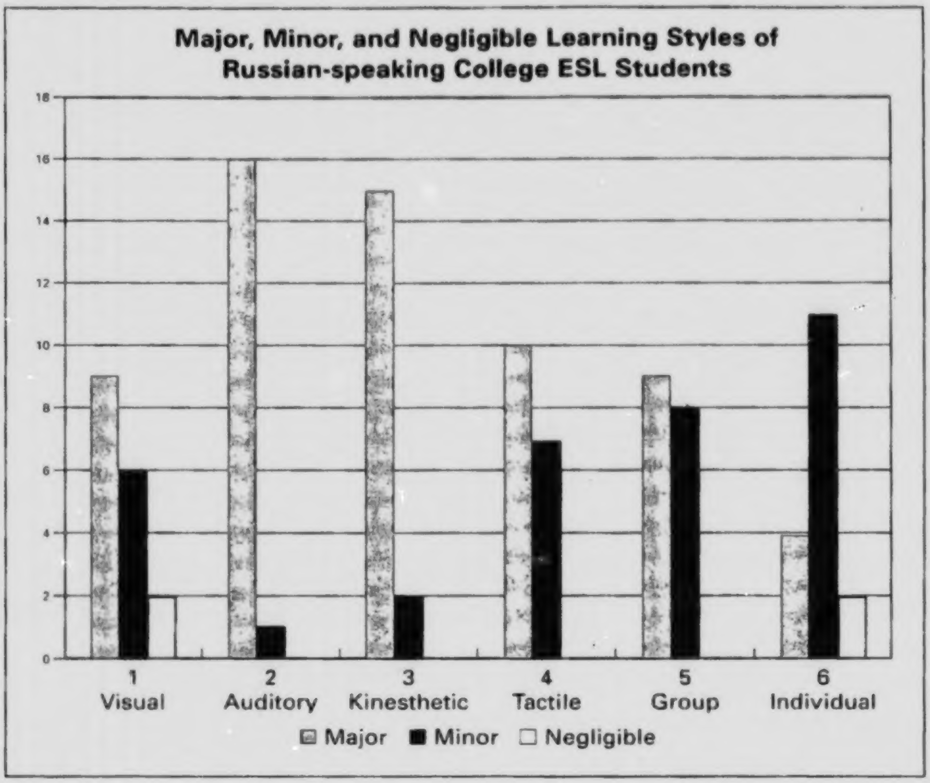

Figure 3. Major, minor, and negligible learning styles of Russian-speaking college ESL students.

Research Question Two

When interviewed and asked how they preferred to learn and study English, the responses of the participants often did not match their responses on the PLSPQ. Of the 7 university students interviewed, 2 of their oral descriptions corroborated with their survey responses, while 5 indicated different preferred learning styles from those reported on the PLSPQ.

For instance, one student (A) stated that he learned best by listening and seeing written materials and that he preferred group work above individual work in the classroom. However, when we compared this response with his answers on the PLSPQ, we found that the two did not match. For group work, A's score on the PLSPQ indicated that this was only a minor learning style for him, as were visual, auditory, tactile, and individual. The only major learning style for A on the PLSPQ was kinesthetic, a learning style he indicated little interest in during the interview. Likewise, another student (Z) stressed during the interview that she liked group work. However, her PLSPQ results indicated that group work was only a minor learning style (34 out of 37) for her.

There were also discrepancies among the 6 college students interviewed, although to a lesser extent. Half of them indicated the same learning style preferences as on the PLSPQ, while half of them indicated different learning styles. Student J, for example, reported in the interview that she preferred to work individually. On the PLSPQ, however, this was a negligible learning style (24 out of 24) for her. Upon reviewing J's individual responses to the survey statements, we found that on statement number 30 ("I prefer to work alone") she responded "disagree" and on statement number 28 ("I prefer to work on projects by myself") she responded "strongly disagree." Similarly, during the course of his interview, student K stated that he preferred visual ("I need to see") and individual learning styles. However, on the PLSPQ, these two were his minor learning styles—visual (36 out of 37) and individual (30 out of 37). The other four learning styles were his major ones—auditory (40 out of 50), kinesthetic (40 out of 50), tactile (38 out of 50), and group (38 out of 50).

Research Question Three

The learning style preferences in this study reflected more the students' individual preferences than their cultural traditions. Data from the oral interviews revealed that of the 13 participants, 4 preferred visual, 3 both visual and auditory, 2 auditory, 2 tactile, 1 both kinesthetic and visual, and 1 kinesthetic. These results did not indicate any one major learning style preference.

The participants had been educated in a rigid, traditional, teacher-centered authoritarian school system that emphasized rote learning and translation with little or no opportunity for such learner-centered activities as group work. If cultural tradition is indeed more important than individual preference as an influence on one's preferred learning styles, we would expect to see the majority of the study participants indicate individual learning as their preferred learning style. However, the data from the oral interviews indicated that more than half of the participants (8 out of 13) preferred group learning to individual learning. While group learning is a popular teaching technique in the U.S., it was generally not approved of in the former Soviet Union. As student U expressed:

> For me it's better to work with the group. People have different opinions and ideas and they share with the group. We didn't have group work in Russia. Teachers didn't like us to be in groups in Russia.

The data from the PLSPQ were also revealing. A majority of the participants chose kinesthetic (78%) as their major learning style, closely followed by auditory (75%). An auditory learning style preference would seem to be consistent with an educational system that emphasizes teacher lecture (as in the case of the Russian students' prior educational experience). A kinesthetic learning style, on the other hand, would seem to be consistent with fields such as nursing or computer science, where individuals are physically involved in classroom experiences (e.g., performing laboratory experiments or developing computer software coding). On the background questionnaire, 21 (66%) of the students indicated nursing or computer science as their major fields. Yet this consistency was not confirmed in the oral interviews. When students were questioned, neither their cultural backgrounds nor their current educational experiences seemed to be dictating their learning style preferences, which instead appeared to be more a factor of individual preference.

Discussion

This discussion is organized around the following themes: general comments, internal contradictions with PLSPQ results, comparison between PLSPQ responses and oral interview results, PLSPQ design issues, and comments on oral interview responses.

General Comments

The PLSPQ showed that kinesthetic was the preferred major learning style of the Russian-speaking ESL students in this study, closely followed by auditory (Wintergerst & DeCapua, 1998a,b). This differs from the results found by Reid, Mata Vicioso, Gedeon, Takacs, and Korotkikh (1998) in their study of Siberian EFL teachers in training. The Siberian participants preferred both kinesthetic and tactile learning styles. While the participants in our study also chose kinesthetic, our participants preferred auditory above tactile.

Kinesthetic and auditory were also found to be the two most important learning styles of both the university group and the college group. We interpret the difference between the two groups to be relatively minor. For example, the preferred learning style of university participants was kinesthetic followed by auditory, whereas for the college students auditory was the preferred, closely followed by kinesthetic. Group was the preferred major learning style while individual was the preferred minor style.

Internal Contradictions With PLSPQ Results

On the PLSPQ, participants are asked to respond to five statements on each of the six learning style variables. These statements are randomized so that statements intended to correspond to a particular learning style may be separated by several statements reflecting other learning styles. In our analysis of the responses, we found that some participants answered with "strongly agree" on one statement and with "disagree" on another statement intended to measure the same learning style.

One possible explanation for why alternate statements elicited a range of responses is that participants experienced linguistic difficulty with the survey items. For example, they may have misunderstood some words and thus misunderstood the intended meaning of the item. Alternately, they may have focused on a certain word out of context without considering the statement's entire meaning, or they may have experienced some other kind of language confusion. According to Itzen (1995), ESL students are likely to rely on word-level linguistic cues, whereas native speakers rely more on general meanings and concepts. Reid (personal e-mail communication, January 21, 1998) indicated that her cut-off scores for each of the learning style modes were set based on looking "carefully at the ranges, and where the natural splits occurred" in the data. However, we must emphasize that only one misunderstood question can move a student's learning style from one category to another due to the pre-established cut-off scores.

A second explanation for the contradictory responses given by participants on the PLSPQ is that participants had problems due to time pressure. Although the PLSPQ is not a timed test, the participants completed it in their ESL classes under their teachers' supervision and were allowed a set time to answer all items. Under these circumstances, some students may have become anxious and thus may have been unable to respond appropriately.

Comparison Between PLSPQ Responses and Oral Interview Results

In addition to the contradictory responses received on the PLSPQ itself, the responses to the learning styles inventory and the information provided by students in the oral interviews also contradicted each other at times. For example, student J's preferred learning style for individual work came out as negligible on the survey. However, in the interview she stated a clear preference for individual work. Both student V and student K also stated a clear preference for individual work in the interview but in the survey indicated only a minor preference for this learning style.

During the interviews, participants were asked to expand on their language learning and their general educational experiences both in the U.S. and in their home regions. However, the instructions on the PLSPQ asked participants to respond to the statements as they applied to their study of English. Thus, in the survey participants may have been referring to their learning experiences in U.S. American ESL classes. As an example of the differential responses received in the survey and the interview, students reported that in their home regions they had for the most part learned English via teacher-lecture. However, on the PLSPQ they reported kinesthetic as their preferred major learning style, closely followed by auditory. Since kinesthetic is a learning style often used in ESL classes in the U.S., this response is not entirely surprising.

PLSPQ Design Issues

The above-reported discrepancy in findings between the PLSPQ and the oral interview prompted us as researchers to investigate possible design flaws in the PLSPQ. We wanted to know if a given PLSPQ statement really reflected what occurred in the language learning process.

One issue that we investigated was the possibility that responses to the PLSPQ are strongly culturally influenced. For example, the Japanese students in Reid's 1987 study responded more moderately on the PLSPQ than did all the other non-native speaker language groups. We noted a similar tendency in our Russian-speaking participants, who rarely checked "strongly agree" or "strongly disagree" on the PLSPQ. This tendency is further corroborated by Oxford and Anderson (1995), who point out that several studies (e.g., Call, 1995; Oxford, Ehrman, & Lavine, 1991; Reid, 1987) have shown that Japanese do not indicate any single perceptual learning style. Eliason (1989, 1995) and Nelson (1995) attempt to explain this tendency by suggesting that cultural factors lead Japanese to "take the middle way" or to avoid extremes, thus discouraging them from making strong statements on survey questionnaires. In sum, in cultures where extremes are not favored, participants may avoid checking "strongly agree" or "strongly disagree" and therefore may not display clearly defined major learning style preferences. This may have affected our findings.

The influence of language proficiency on the validity and reliability of an instrument that is used for both native and non-native speakers of English requires further elaboration. The language of the PLSPQ was simplified by Reid to facilitate understanding by high intermediate or advanced ESL students. It was validated on native English speakers and on advanced ESL students in college programs. Itzen (1995) notes that the statement items were not found to be valid measures of the proposed learning style constructs because "the majority of factor loadings for multiple indicators of the six learning style factors were found to be extremely low" (p. 48) and the overall hypothesized model (the six-learning style model) did not prove to be a good fit for the data in his confirmatory factor analytic study of the PLSPQ.

As for reliability, it was relatively easy to obtain reliable scales for the native English speakers (Reid, 1990) but more difficult for the ESL students since the reliabilities for the scales were very low in the pilot tests. Itzen (1995) claims:

> While evidence was finally provided on the reliability of the scales used in the study, the reliabilities were established only on two (individual learning and group learning) of the six scales for the ESL students. Moreover, no mention was made as to the validity of the constructs in the survey. No form of factor analysis was utilized to determine the validity or a corresponding factor structure for the constructs. No other studies have been published that examine the psychometric properties of the Reid PLSPQ. (p. 17-18)

Because the validity of the survey instrument was determined solely on the split-half reliability coefficient (Reid, 1990), Itzen concludes that this instrument does not demonstrate acceptable internal validity nor does it take into account the linguistic proficiency of students, which may have had an influence on the psychometric properties of the instrument.

Bonham (1988) and Cummins (1981) have argued that language proficiency is an important variable in survey instruments. Reid (1990) states that the survey items were clearer for those students with a higher level of English language proficiency. Itzen (1995), however, claims that the evidence suggests the opposite—that the effectiveness of the 30 items to measure learning styles is not influenced by the English proficiency of the survey participants. Though the instrument was empirically tested, he found it to be an inappropriate measure for both native and non-native speakers. The hypothesized factor structure for the survey was found to be equally inadequate for both native and non-native speakers of English. In other words, regardless of the language proficiency of the participants, the items in the survey were not clear measures of the learning styles they intended to measure. Generally, items in the PLSPQ that were intended to measure one particular learning style were not perceived as such by the students (Itzen, 1995).

Comments on Oral Interview Responses

The oral interviewers first asked participants to describe their English language learning experiences in the former Soviet Union and then to compare how English was taught there with their experiences in the U.S. Subsequently, participants were asked about their personal language learning style preferences. This question order could have influenced participants to report a preference for U.S. American style language learning practices. Since the interviews were conducted in English, participants may not have been able to fully articulate their true preferences and may have repeated commonly used expressions.

Certain oral interview questions such as "What Russian cultural traditions do you think affect the teaching and learning of English?" were generally not understood. Participants responded that they did not know or gave an inappropriate response. As a result, it became necessary for us to gather our information by using less direct questions or by deriving the information we needed from their responses to other questions. This inability to reflect upon their cultural traditions may be attributed to a lack of understanding of the question or to a level of thought for which they were unprepared (DeCapua & Wintergerst, 1998a, 1998b). In contrast, when we posed this question to Russian EFL teachers and Americans teaching in Russia, these informants had little difficulty understanding and responding to the question. Hall and Hall (1990) point out that "because culture is experienced personally, very few individuals see it for what it is—*a program for behavior*" (p. xiv). In other words, without training it is difficult to see one's own culture.

Some interview questions contained terminology unfamiliar to the participants, such as *teacher-centered* and *learner-centered.* Once these terms were explained, they were able to respond to the questions. The term *study group* also caused some initial confusion since participants interpreted this phrase to mean group work. Once we became aware of the confusion, we were able to modify the questions accordingly.

Differences in interview responses between the university and the college students may be partially understood by examining their ages. The mean age of the university students interviewed was 18 whereas that of the college students interviewed was 28. Many of the college students had completed university or technical studies in the home country and had already begun careers before emigrating. Furthermore, all 6 college students interviewed had declared nursing majors. By contrast, 3 of the 7 university students interviewed still had undecided majors. These differences indicate that overall maturity may have played a role in determining the types of interview responses. Given their prior educational and professional background coupled with their older age, the college students expressed greater insights into their personal learning preferences and processes. Even though the university students had been exposed to English more, were younger, and had better educated parents, they did not elaborate as extensively in their comments.

There is also the issue of self-reporting for both the interview and the survey. Are participants able to report accurately on their language learning processes and styles? Their descriptions may be based more on what they think they do (or should do) than on what they actually do (McLaughlin, 1990; Vann & Abraham, 1990). When participants have difficulty with a written instrument (Bonham, 1988), they have no recourse. An important advantage of oral interviews is that when questions, misunderstandings, or both arise in interview sessions, participants have the opportunity to use interactional techniques including elaboration, interlocutor feedback, and back-channeling[5] to clarify meaning. These techniques played a valuable role in the interviews. There were numerous instances when a participant did not understand the question as initially posed and asked the interviewer for clarification. Likewise, when a participant provided a very abbreviated response to a question, the interviewer was able to ask additional questions to elicit pertinent information. Such options are not available on a written survey instrument.

Conclusion

In this study the participants, despite sharing Russian as their native language, differed in a number of important characteristics. These differences, including among others cultural background and home region, affected their position in the former Soviet Union as well as their current status in the U.S. In view of these differences, we acknowledge that these study participants do not necessarily represent a model of general Russian culture. Though we are assuming a shared cultural background among our participants, the fact that they are from diverse areas of the former Soviet Union might have been instrumental in their emphasizing the differences in their cultures rather than the similarities.

The findings of this study indicated that individual preferences outweighed cultural traditions, though other studies cited in Ehrman and Oxford (1995) and Reid (1995) have suggested that cultural variables impact learning style preferences. In our study, these individual preferences became clear in the oral interviews as participants elaborated on their individual learning style preferences in their ESL/EFL language learning experiences and in their responses to the statements in the PLSPQ.

Our comparison of the results of the PLSPQ with those of the oral interviews revealed that the paper and pencil responses on the PLSPQ frequently did not match the answers in the oral interviews. We attribute these discrepancies in large part to problems in Reid's (1984) survey design. The oral interviews, however, did reconfirm the demographic information on the participant background questionnaire.

This study provides insights into the problematic area of research design and methodology. As a result, we include a warning to researchers to be aware of the nature and psychometric properties of a chosen instrument, even when that instrument is one of the best known and most popular in the field. The outcome emphasizes the need for researchers to develop instruments with demonstrated validity and reliability to minimize cultural biases and linguistic problems. One suggestion is to modify Reid's (1984) PLSPQ. Statements that many participants found unclear or difficult to understand should be revised or deleted.[6] All statements should explicitly relate to language learning. Any adapted version of the PLSPQ needs to be normed across a variety of cultural and linguistic backgrounds. An alternative suggestion is to design a totally new learning style instrument. This entails generating a pool of statements, piloting the instrument on the target population, determining validity and reliability, revising the survey instrument, and then renorming it. Yet another suggestion is to use one of the existing normed survey instruments such as O'Brien's (1990) The Learning Channel Preference Checklist or Oxford's (1995) Style Analysis Survey and verify its validity and reliability.

Research on learning styles provides teachers with an understanding of students and how they learn. ESL teachers need research instruments specifically tailored to language learning and appropriate to the range of cultural and linguistic backgrounds of the target populations. In order to gain better insights into the learning processes of individuals (Vann & Abraham, 1990), researchers must rely on different elicitation instruments and varied research approaches, for no single instrument or approach can provide a truly complete and accurate picture of a learner's learning style preferences.

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Endnotes

[1] Due to the small sample size, this study, examining the learning styles of Russian students, should be considered exploratory. The authors encourage other researchers to further explore this area.

[2] Available from Educational Testing Services, Princeton, NJ.

[3] Available from the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI.

[4] This ratio is largely due to the nature of course offerings at a small Long Island liberal arts college offering the only nursing program in the geographical area and thus attracting a higher than usual number of female students to this traditionally female field of study.

[5] Back channeling refers to conversational gambits or interjections such as "right," "aha," and body language such as nods or other body movements that signal interlocutor cooperation, awareness, and participation in the interaction.

[6] An example of statements that many participants found unclear are the following: "I prefer working on projects by myself," and "I learn more when I can make a model of something." Participants did not understand how these comments related to a language class. What does it mean to "work on a project" or "make a model of something" in the context of a language class?

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Appendix A

Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire

SA	A	U	D	SD
Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

	SA	A	U	D	SD
1. When the teacher tells me the instructions I understand better.	___	___	___	___	___
2. I prefer to learn by doing something in class.	___	___	___	___	___
3. I get more work done when I work with others.	___	___	___	___	___
4. I learn more when I study with a group.	___	___	___	___	___
5. In class, I learn best when I work with others.	___	___	___	___	___
6. I learn better by reading what the teacher writes on the chalkboard.	___	___	___	___	___
7. When someone tells me how to do something in class, I learn it better.	___	___	___	___	___
8. When I do things in class, I learn better.	___	___	___	___	___
9. I remember things I have heard in class better than things I have read.	___	___	___	___	___
10. When I read instructions, I remember them better.	___	___	___	___	___
11. I learn more when I can make a model of something.	___	___	___	___	___
12. I understand better when I read instructions.	___	___	___	___	___
13. When I study alone, I remember things better.	___	___	___	___	___
14. I learn more when I make something for a class project.	___	___	___	___	___
15 I enjoy learning in class by doing experiments.	___	___	___	___	___
16. I learn better when I make drawings as I study.	___	___	___	___	___
17. I learn better in class when the teacher gives a lecture.	___	___	___	___	___
18. When I work alone, I learn better.	___	___	___	___	___
19. I understand things better in class when I participate in role-playing.	___	___	___	___	___
20. I learn better in class when I listen to someone.	___	___	___	___	___
21. I enjoy working on an assignment with two or three classmates.	___	___	___	___	___
22. When I build something, I remember what I have learned better.	___	___	___	___	___
23. I prefer to study with others.					
24. I learn better by reading than by listening to someone.	___	___	___	___	___

	SA	A	U	D	SD
25. I enjoy making something for a class project.	___	___	___	___	___
26. I learn best in class when I can participate in related activities.	___	___	___	___	___
27. In class, I work better when I work alone.	___	___	___	___	___
28. I prefer working on projects by myself.	___	___	___	___	___
29. I learn more by reading textbooks than by listening to lectures.	___	___	___	___	___
30. I prefer to work by myself.	___	___	___	___	___

Note: By Joy Reid, 1995, Department of English, University of Wyoming, Laramie, 82070. Copyright 1984 by Joy Reid. Reprinted with permission.

Appendix B

Background Questionnaire

Last Name ___________ First Name ___________ Telephone Number ___________
Age ____ Sex ____ Religion ___________ Native Country _________________
Native Language _______________ Language (s) spoken at home _____________
How many years did you study English in your country? ___ In the United States? ___
Have you taken the TOEFL? ___ yes ___ no. If yes, when? _____ Your score? ______
Which ESL classes are you taking this semester? ____________________________
Are you ____ a graduate student or ____ an undergraduate student?
What is your major? ____
Including this semester, how many semesters have you been at this college/university? _____
How long have you lived in the United States? _______
How many years of school did you complete in the United States? _______
  Which grades? ___ 9 ___ 10 ___ 11 ___ 12
  College? ___ freshman ___ sophomore ___ junior
How many years of school did you complete in your country? ______
In what republic/region was your school located? ___________________________
Did you attend any university in your home country? ___ yes ___ no
  If yes, how many years? _____ Which university? _____________________
  Did you receive a degree? ___ yes ___ no. What kind of degree? _____________
  In which field? ____
How many years of school did your father complete? ____
  If your father completed university, what was his major field of study? _________.
  Your father's occupation in the U.S.: ___________ in your country ___________
How many years of school did your mother complete? ____
  If your mother completed university, what was her major field of study? ________
  Your mother's occupation in the U.S.: ___________ in your country __________

The CATESOL Journal

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New Voices in the Classroom: Nonnative English-Speaking Professionals in the Field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

This special theme section of *The CATESOL Journal* focuses on nonnative English-speaking (NNES) professionals, a topic that, over the last few years, has received increasing attention in the field of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL). The interest in NNES professionals in TESOL is not surprising given that large numbers of English teachers from around the world come from NNES backgrounds. While there are no precise statistics on the numbers of NNES professionals in California, the relatively high numbers of NNES pre-service teachers from diverse backgrounds presently enrolled in credential and master of arts (MA) in TESOL programs suggests that California's teaching workforce is becoming increasingly more diverse—culturally, ethnically, and linguistically.

According to Braine (1999), "a non-native speaker of a language is defined against a native speaker of that language" (p. xiv). However, identity as a native speaker of a language is an issue open to debate since, as argued by Nayar (1994), a native speaker could be defined against one, several, or all of the following factors:[1]

> (a) primacy in order of acquisition; (b) manner and environment of acquisition; (c) acculturation by growing up in the speech community; (d) phonological, linguistic and communicative competence; (e) dominance, frequency, and comfort of use; (f) ethnicity; (g) nationality/domicile; (h) self-perception of linguistic identity; (i) other-perception of linguistic membership and eligibility; (j) monolinguality. (p. 3)

Until 1996, NNES professionals saw themselves as having limited visibility and voice in the TESOL profession. However, at the 1996 TESOL convention, NNES professionals gained voice when George Braine organized a colloquium titled, "In Their Own Voices: Nonnative Speaker Professionals in TESOL."[2] This colloquium, the first in a series of annual TESOL colloquia addressing issues related to NNES professionals, gave rise to what could be called "The NNES Professionals' Movement." Specifically, in response to the interest generated by the colloquium, the Nonnative English Speakers in

TESOL (NNEST) caucus was established in 1998 (Braine, Liu, & Kamhi-Stein, 1998). Additionally, dozens of articles and findings that arose from doctoral dissertations focusing on issues related to NNES professionals (e.g., the native speaker construct, NNES teacher identity and its impact on ESL students, teacher preparation and NNES student teachers) began to be published in refereed journals.

In 1998, at the CATESOL conference held in Pasadena, I organized a colloquium titled "Overcoming the Barriers Faced by Nonnative English-speaking Teachers." To the surprise of the panelists,[3] the colloquium generated great interest among the 80 or more attendees who were teachers and administrators from both native English-speaking (NES) and NNES backgrounds. A frank and lively discussion during the colloquium led several CATESOL members to suggest the formation of a NNES professionals' interest group (IG) in CATESOL. In December 1999, the CATESOL Board of Directors approved the establishment of an IG titled "Nonnative Language Educators' Issues" (NNLEI), occasioning CATESOL to become the first U.S. TESOL affiliate to establish such a group. It is only appropriate, therefore, that CATESOL publish a theme section designed to expand the existing professional literature on the topic of NNES teachers.

The articles showcased in the theme section focus on several issues. For example, two of the articles deal with the self-perceptions of NNES professionals teaching in ESL settings. In the article titled "Nativism, the Native Speaker Construct, and Minority Immigrant Women Teachers of English as a Second Language," Nuzhat Amin, born in Pakistan and currently an adjunct professor in the Women's Studies Program at McMaster University in Canada, reports on the results of a study designed to investigate the manifestation of the concept "native speaker" in the classrooms of eight minority immigrant women ESL teachers in Toronto. Amin found that these minority women teachers faced specific challenges, including lack of credibility due to their ethnicity and their students' perception of them as learners of English. However, the teachers in Amin's study felt that it was precisely their nonnative status that enabled them to implement effective classroom practices conducive to language learning. These practices included but were not limited to building community, disrupting the native speaker myths of birth and linguistic intuition, and designing materials that promote inclusiveness.

The second article focusing on NNES practitioners in ESL settings is the one co-authored by Kamhi-Stein, Aagard, Ching, Paik, and Sasser. This article, titled "Teaching in K-12 Programs: Perceptions of Native and Nonnative English-speaking Practitioners," reports on a study that compares the perceptions of Southern California's K-12 practitioners from NES and NNES backgrounds in relation to their professional preparation, their level of job satisfaction, and their degree of comfort teaching various skill areas. The results of the study showed that the two groups of professionals shared a positive view of (a) their professional preparation, (b) the support received from formal and informal networks, and (c) their language skills. In contrast, a higher percentage of NNES practitioners reported they were teaching early elementary grades, they were slightly more negative than their NES peers in their evaluation of school administrators, they exhibited more positive self-perceptions about their instructional abilities, and they saw their nonnative status as contributing to their professional abilities.

The second notion presented in the theme section concerns NES and NNES teacher collaboration. This theme is reflected in the article by Aya Matsuda and Paul Kei Matsuda, titled "Autonomy and Collaboration in Teacher Education: Journal Sharing Among Native and Nonnative English-Speaking Teachers." In this article, Matsuda and Matsuda argue that collaboration in teacher preparation is desirable since it promotes the creation of communities in which future teachers learn from one another and view their diverse backgrounds—whether professional, cultural, or linguistic—as strengths rather than weaknesses. Matsuda and Matsuda's article also describes a successful case of collaborative teacher development in which electronic dialogue journals provided the medium for NES and NNES teachers to learn from their diversity.

Also focusing on the topic of NES and NNES teacher collaboration is the article co-authored by Luciana Carvalho de Oliveira and Sally Richardson titled "Collaboration Between Native and Nonnative English-Speaking Educators." In this article, Carvalho de Oliveira and Richardson argue that while most educators recognize the benefits of collaboration with other colleagues, many may not be aware of the numerous benefits that can be attained by NES and NNES teacher collaboration. Furthermore, Carvalho de Oliveira and Richardson describe their process of collaboration and explain how it has enhanced their instructional practices.

Addressing the self-perceived needs of TESOL students enrolled in an MA program in Southern California is "Diary Studies: The Voices of Nonnative English Speakers in a Master of Arts Program in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages," co-authored by Elis Lee (a former ESL learner originally from Brazil and currently teaching for the ESL Credit Division at Glendale Community College) and Loren Lew (A NES professional currently teaching for the Non-Credit ESL Department at Glendale Community College). In the article, Lee and Lew analyze the journal diaries of four NNES students and conclude that even though the participants reported experiencing language anxiety and underestimating their language ability, they used coping mechanisms to overcome their perceived difficulties. A qualitative analysis of the diary entries also showed that the students believed that their first-hand experience of the English language acquisition process contributed to strengthening the program in which they were enrolled.

While the article by Lee and Lew reflects the concerns that many NNES teachers have at the beginning of their teaching career, the article by Jun Liu, titled "Confessions of a Nonnative English-speaking Professional" argues that NNES professionals can be as successful as their NES peers. Liu describes his professional development experiences, including being an EFL learner and teacher in China, being a graduate student in the U.S., and serving as chair of doctoral dissertation committees at the University of Arizona. Liu articulates the hurdles he has faced as well as the successes he has experienced, concluding the article by arguing that "the success of a TESOL professional does not depend on whether one is a native speaker or a nonnative speaker of English" (p. 63).

Finally, the article titled "Issues in Hiring Nonnative English-Speaking Professionals to Teach English as a Second Language," co-authored by Kathleen Flynn and Goedele Gulikers, two community college administrators, answers questions related to the hiring process in ESL settings from the point of view of a NES professional (Flynn) and a NNES professional (Gulikers). The article answers six questions designed to address various issues, including program administrators' expectations when hiring NNES professionals, the types of support systems that administrators should make available to NES and NNES teachers, ESL students' perceptions' regarding their NNES teachers, and the role that MA TESOL programs should play in the professional development process of NNES teachers.

I believe that the contents of this theme section represent the state of the art in research and practices related to NNES professionals. I hope that readers who are encountering this topic for the first time or who have only a passing familiarity with the topic will consider future collaborative projects with NES or NNES colleagues. I also hope that the articles in the theme section will provide insights into an emerging area of professional interest in California. I invite you to read the articles and reflect on their value to your professional practices.

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Author

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Endnotes

[1] This special theme section is not designed to define who is a native or a nonnative speaker of a language. For information on this topic, please see Davies (1991), Nayar (1994), Phillipson (1992).

[2] For a description of the colloquium, see Braine (1999).

[3] The colloquium panelists included the author, Elis Lee, Joseph Wei, Christina Lee, and Sally Gardner.

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The CATESOL Journal

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Confessions of a Non-Native English-Speaking Professional

■ In this article, the author describes the three stages of his own professional development—puzzlement, endeavor, and empowerment. In describing these stages, he seeks to empower other nonnative English speaking (NNES) professionals in the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). The article describes the author's experiences, which range from learning English as a foreign language (EFL) in China to teaching English as a Second language (ESL) in the U.S., from writing and publishing in his native language, Chinese, to writing and publishing in English, and from being a graduate student in a university in the United States to serving as a doctoral dissertation committee chair. The article further reveals the hurdles overcome, the challenges encountered, and the academic success in teaching and research that the author has experienced as a NNES professional. The author concludes by sharing his belief that the success of a TESOL professional does not depend on whether one is a native speaker or a non-native speaker of English.

At a recent meeting of the oral comprehensive examination committee for a doctoral student in the Second Language Acquisition and Teaching Interdisciplinary Program at the University of Arizona, I briefly introduced myself to the graduate representative from a different discipline. I was not prepared for the question he threw back at me. "So, are you a graduate student?" I noticed that the other committee members who knew me were startled by the question. The doctoral candidate came to my rescue, saying, "No, Dr. Liu is my committee chair." I smiled and then focused on the procedure of the oral exam. On my way home that evening, the question reentered my mind, and I could not help thinking of a number of pertinent issues regarding how I am perceived.

Recent publications in our profession reveal a growing interest in the concerns of NNES professionals and the roles they play as TESOL professionals (Braine, 1996, 1997; Kamhi-Stein, 2000; Liu, 1999; Samimy & Brutt-

Griffler, 1999). Generally, TESOL research has focused on the experiences of ESL learners and effective ways to help them learn English (e.g., Brown, 2000; Celce-Murcia, 1998; Hadley, 2001; Li, 1998; Liu & Richards, 2001; Manzo & Manzo, 1997; Mitchell & Vidal, 2001; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Recently, however, research in the field has expanded to include the impact that NNES professionals have on their students (e.g., Braine, 1996; Kresovich, 1988; Liu, 1998; McNeill, 1994; Medgyes, 1994; Palfreyman 1993; Rampton, 1990). Although in the U.S. the majority of professionals in Applied Linguistics and TESOL speak English as their first language (L1), NNES professionals clearly play an important role as well. Additionally, their interests, concerns, and perspectives have compelled the profession to explore the complexities of the native versus nonnative speaker constructs (some leading researchers are Davies, 1991; Kramsch, 1998; Liu, 1999; Medgyes, 1992—are leading researchers). This exploration has led many researchers to challenge the stereotype that NNES professionals who were born and educated in EFL contexts fall short of native proficiency in English (Bautista, 1997; Crystal, 1997; Kachru, 1992; Kachru & Nelson, 1996; Medgyes, 1994; Paikeday, 1985; Rampton, 1990).

Admittedly, numerous differences exist between native speakers and nonnative speakers of English. Obvious ones include the process of learning English and the context in which English is learned. In this paper, I will reflect on my own experiences as a NNES professional, initially as an international graduate student and currently as a faculty member in a U.S. research university. My reflection comprises three parts, each focusing on a particular dilemma I faced as I progressed along the a continuum of my professional development. The first part is titled "Puzzlement" and addresses the question: How did I feel when my self-confidence was challenged by school expectations in the target culture? The second part is titled "Endeavor" and addresses the question: How did I attempt to develop adaptive cultural transformation competence[1] and to create multiple identities appropriate for different communities? The third part is titled "Empowerment" and addresses the question: What did I do as a NNES teacher to empower my students to learn?

My intention is to share my experiences both with other NNES professionals and with my native English-speaking (NES) colleagues who have not experienced a similar process. Ultimately, I aim to achieve a better understanding and appreciation of those in the TESOL field who consider themselves NNES professionals.

Puzzlement

I came to the U.S. in 1991 to pursue my PhD in second and foreign language education at Ohio State University (OSU). With a decade of experience teaching EFL in a college in China, upon my arrival in the U.S. I was very confident of my proficiency in English. However, from the beginning there were many occasions when I felt very awkward and thought that I had failed to achieve communicative competence. For example, when I arrived at the airport in Columbus, Ohio, I was picked up by an acquaintance who kindly took me to his house for dinner. As soon as we reached his house, his wife asked me if I wanted something to drink. Because of my Chinese sense of politeness, I said, "No, thanks." Actually I was very thirsty and expected her to ask me again. But to my surprise, she served herself a drink and started talking with me while preparing dinner. About half an hour later, the dinner was ready, and this time she asked me directly if I cared for a glass of root beer. Although I did not quite hear the modifier of the word "beer," I accepted her offer without hesitation, thinking that a glass of beer, whatever it was, would help me relax after a 17-hour stressful flight. No sooner had I taken the first sip than I realized that American beer had a very special taste. Such a different flavor soon became too unique to appreciate. To please my hosts, I kept drinking, pretending that I really enjoyed the beer while waiting for a chance to request something else to drink. What I did not expect was that the hostess, impressed by my speed of drinking, took my glass and said, "So you like the taste, and I bet you cannot find it in China, eh?" "Yes, well, you see..." I tried to search for words polite enough to show my dislike of the taste. But she interpreted my hesitation as indicating approval, although my Chinese culturally-conditioned "yes" response was not intended to mean "yes" in this context. Sure enough, my empty glass was soon filled again with the same beverage. This time, however, I did not finish it, afraid of having the glass refilled again. I used my Chinese strategy of implicit polite refusal by sipping it a little bit at a time. Half an hour later, the glass was still full.

A couple of months into the first quarter at OSU, I began to realize the difference between the English people spoke in daily communication and the English I had learned from reading 18th- and 19th-century British and American literature books. The idiomatic expressions I knew from books and from tapes sometimes caused confusion in communication; the canned proverbs, jokes, or tongue twisters I consciously carried into conversation were not received as humorous. What was worse, some British poems I proudly inserted in conversation to reveal my solid background in literature sometimes made me sound comical. Oftentimes, I was dissatisfied with my conversational English and began to question how successful I had been at learning and teaching English in China.

Pragmatic incompetence apart, my lack of cultural experience on many occasions aggravated my frustration in communication. I felt ashamed that my knowledge of English, which was mainly obtained from books, did not help me feel comfortable in daily communication. One day I had a conversation with a rental agent about the distinction between furnished and unfurnished rooms because I did not understand the variety of rental packages. Fifteen minutes into the conversation, the landlord, who was obviously impatient with my endless questions and the puzzled expression on my face, quit talking with me and showed me the apartment instead. When visiting McDonald's, I literally questioned the meaning of "to go" when I first ordered a combo because I did not know where else I could go other than to the fast-food restaurant in order to eat the hamburger. I was somewhat confused and offended one day when a taxi driver asked me to sit in the back

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seat while the passenger seat in front was available. I felt extremely uncomfortable when in one of the courses I took during my first quarter, I noticed that the professor sat on the edge of the front desk while teaching. I was equally surprised to notice that some of my classmates brought soft drinks and potato chips into class. In Chinese culture, this behavior is not acceptable because it is perceived as disrespectful to teachers. Here in the U.S., nobody in class seemed to care. It took me almost a year before I realized that while shopping for clothes, I could actually try on every piece before I bought it, and I could return anything I decided I didn't like. Behavior patterns that were known by others in the U.S. represented new concepts for me. The problem, in my case, was not the language since I could tell the difference between the language I used and the language spoken by others. The problem was that the U.S. culture overshadowed my linguistic abilities. The beliefs, values, and norms that governed my social behavior no longer seemed to function well in this new environment. What I needed then, and what I later benefited from, was the desire and courage to embark on a journey of what I will call adaptive cultural transformation.

Endeavor

Achieving adaptive cultural transformation in the U.S. was not easy. The biggest challenge that I encountered in this process was finding a balance between my Asian cultural background and the United States cultural environment I was in, and between my dual identities—in the Chinese and in the U.S. communities. I was highly motivated both instrumentally and integratively[2] to adapt to the U.S. culture, to gain new experiences in order to understand and appreciate the target culture. But my Chinese self, characterized by Asian beliefs, values, customs, and habits as illustrated by my earlier experiences in the U.S., often presented conflicts in the process of my adaptive cultural transformation. That transformation required determination and a willingness to recognize my own native culture and to understand and respect the target culture.

In North America, I am regarded as a visible minority due to my Asian appearance. In order to achieve my second language (L2) social identity, to be accepted as a member of the target culture, which was a very important factor for success in my professional career, I focused my attention on improving my communication skills and mannerisms and even my appearance. As a result of my cultural adaptation, I am now often mistaken for a Chinese-American. While being identified as a Chinese-American can be a symbol of successful acculturation, it is not necessarily interpreted that way in the Chinese community. I found it difficult to be Westernized when I was with my Chinese friends. For instance, in a Chinese-only group, speaking English would be regarded as odd or showing off; likewise, dressing like the United States population would be considered a sign of being alienated from the Chinese inner group.

Sometimes I preferred to reveal my Chinese ethnic identity when talking about something I was very proud of, such as Chinese ethnic foods, which I cook without using recipes, and China's long history with numerous dynasties. Sometimes I preferred to conceal my Chinese ethnic identity when the topic under discussion was something for which China is often criticized, such as the treatment of intellectuals or the nature of the government bureaucracy.

As I believe that social identity is dependent on the social context, I know that my social identity has multiple dimensions. Each has its function in the right context. I present myself as a different person in different social groups and communities. In China, I was very quiet in class as a sign of respect for teachers, but I became very outspoken in class at OSU as a sign of cooperation with teachers. I was not very talkative in Chinese communities in the U.S. because I did not want to show off. But I was very enthusiastic when talking about China and Chinese people among U.S. friends as I considered myself a cultural informant. I seldom wrote Chinese letters to my relatives and friends in China, yet I was not afraid of losing my Chinese. But I wrote almost every day in English because I still saw weakness in my writing in English. Therefore, I came to realize that I have to maintain different identities in different contexts and to vary my communication styles depending on when and where I speak about what and to whom.

I also found that a social identity sometimes requires mutual acceptance. Even if I want to be affiliated with an ethnic group, I might be rejected. In order to know the U.S. culture well, for several consecutive years I spent Christmas Eve at the homes of my U.S. friends, even though I was invited again and again by my Chinese friends to go to their Chinese Christmas parties. One Christmas, when I wanted to be with my Chinese friends for a change, I was unfortunately not invited. I was told later by my Chinese friends that they thought I would decline their invitation if they asked me again. I felt bad about this experience. But perhaps my friends were right; affiliation with a certain ethnic group is reciprocal. How you want to be identified is incomplete without considering what others might think of you.

In my journey of adaptive cultural transformation, I gradually perceived my Chinese cultural boundaries as permeable and flexible. Instead of letting my Chinese culture and my well-established L1 social identity become a shield that blocked me from constructing my L2 identity in the U.S. culture, I became open-minded and was willing to participate in various social activities to give myself opportunities to experience and understand the target culture. I was considered a fluent English speaker by many native English speakers in the U.S. But in my first quarter at OSU, I was afraid to speak up in the courses I took. I was overwhelmed by the various teaching styles used by professors, by the amount of information presented in my classes, by the amount of reading to be completed before each class meeting, by the weekly-testing format, and by the outspokenness of my classmates. As a result, I kept quiet and tried to figure out how to carve a niche for myself in the new classroom culture. I conducted numerous "experiments" on myself in adapting to this special social setting—the academic content classroom. I tried to speak up when I was very certain of something but initially failed because I was nervous

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about making grammatical mistakes. I tried several times to focus on basic concepts in the readings and give my interpretations of the concepts when they were discussed in class. This purposeful preparation somewhat helped my participation. However, I still felt nervous about speaking up in class as I noticed slightly unnatural tones in my voice. Nevertheless, I kept trying and reflecting on my own experiences in participation and interaction with classmates. A couple of quarters later I realized that my participation in classes had become instantaneous, improvised, and effortless.

Learning some of the "normal" behavior rules in classroom communication in the target culture and unlearning some of the "normal" classroom behavior rules in my own culture gradually brought about an internal transformation. In time, I deviated from the accepted classroom patterns of my original culture and acquired the new patterns of the target classroom culture. This process, referred to as the stress-adaptation-growth process (Kim, 1988) in a classroom setting, led to my increased functional fitness and to a greater congruence and compatibility between my internal state and the conditions of the U.S. classroom environment. As a result, my increased oral participation in content courses gradually made me aware of my successful existence in class. I could hear my voice in discussion, and I had a sense of belonging. This increased self confidence also gradually enabled me to attain a level of communicative success beyond the classroom setting that allowed me to meet my social needs, including making friends with people from different cultural backgrounds and seeking graduate research and teaching assistantships across campus. More self confidence also improved my psychological state in that I achieved lower levels of stress and anxiety, higher self-esteem, and the ability to be more creative in work and study and to have a sense of personal fulfillment.

My increased classroom participation enhanced my ability to function in my L2 and thus improved the effectiveness of my communication in the target culture outside the classrooms. It also affected my psychological state and self-identification, which changed from being monocultural to being increasingly intercultural. Instead of feeling bound exclusively to the Chinese culture, I had a more fluid intercultural identity (Gudykunst & Kim, 1984) that I expressed by observing and practicing different sets of social values, beliefs, and norms in different cultural communities. Such an intercultural identity with cognitive, affective, and behavioral flexibility allowed me to adapt to situations and to creatively manage or avoid the conflicts that occur frequently in intercultural communication settings. It is through this dynamic and continuous process of cultural adaptive transformation that I have gradually moved toward becoming increasingly intercultural.

Like many non-native English speakers in the U.S., I underwent an adjustment period in my process of adaptive cultural transformation. Now I am a professor who teaches both graduate and undergraduate courses in applied linguistics and L2 pedagogy in the Department of English at the University of Arizona. Whenever I teach a class that includes many NNES students, they always remind me of myself when I first came to the U.S.

Although I understand that these students are new to the culture, I still expect them to take risks and to make efforts to adapt themselves effectively to the U.S. culture. An encounter with another culture can only lead to openness if the students can suspend the assumption of difference, not perceiving the new culture as strange or alien but instead as a culture to learn about, adjust to, and transform into.

Empowerment

When I began teaching English composition to NNES graduate and undergraduate students at OSU, I often encountered suspicion from my students. This suspicion usually came from those who walked into my classes presuming that their English teacher would be a native English speaker, an understandable assumption. Eventually, my smiles and understanding, my correct pronunciation of their ten-plus syllable names, my anecdotes about my English learning experiences, my encouragement, and my detailed and constructive comments and suggestions on their first assignment all helped me to win their trust and admiration. It is true that I am not a native speaker of English and never will be. But the quality of language teaching is not merely determined by native or non-native speaker status, and I believe my students came to recognize this.

The language I speak and the way I teach make a difference in the students' perception of me, a Chinese person teaching English in the U.S. I remind myself constantly that since I am teaching English in an English environment, the only way I can make up for my lack of nativeness is by being aware of it. This keeps me constantly striving for a higher goal since I recognize that a journey of self-cultivation and refinement usually ends when one no longer feels the need for improvement.

I also believe that the success of NNES professionals in TESOL lies in our modesty. My students appreciate me because I tell them that I need to consult my native speaker colleagues about a word, a phrase, or a sentence. My students appreciate me because I provide them with examples of my struggles completing difficult writing tasks. They appreciate me because they feel free to comment on different drafts of a summary or paper and criticize papers including mine. As a NNES professional, I empower my students through empathy, sailing with them to the shore instead of summoning them from the shore.

The following two examples illustrate how I as a NNES instructor empowered my NNES students when I taught ESL composition at OSU.

Example 1: Being a Participant in the Peer Review Process

Context. International graduate students at OSU represent 129 countries, and their ability to function in English varies greatly. Almost 85% participate in course work offered through the ESL composition program, the largest post-admission ESL writing program in the United States. The ultimate goal of this program is to bring students' expository writing skills to a level at which they can perform successfully as writers in university courses. Upon enrollment, all international graduate students are required to take a one-hour writing placement exam. Based upon this exam, holistically evaluated by ESL composition staff, students are then placed in one of three English courses (106G, 107G, and 108.02). Only a small number of highly qualified students are exempted from the courses.

The three courses have different purposes. English 106G is designed to help graduate students develop the fluency and basic skills needed for academic writing. The emphasis of English 107G is to help students develop advanced skills in academic writing. English 108.02, the last course in the sequence, helps students develop the skills necessary to write about research findings. In Fall 1995, I conducted an action research project[3] in the intermediate ESL writing class (107G). Because developing advanced writing skills was the objective of this course, students were expected to write polished essays incorporating organization patterns most frequently found in academic prose. There were three major tasks in this course—writing a definition paper, writing a problem-solution paper, and performing data analysis. Each task was to be completed with three drafts. Between the first and second drafts, peer review activities were incorporated in which a group of three or four students collaborated and commented on each paper, usually with the help of a structured peer-review sheet. Between the second and the final drafts, one-on-one teacher-student conferences were held. In these conferences, each student came to the teacher's office at a pre-assigned time and the teacher went through the paper with the student, pointing out rhetorical as well as grammatical errors and making various suggestions for revision.

Problems. Although the two activities, peer review and one-on-one tutorials (also known as writing conferences), were generally welcomed by the students, problems occurred with each of the activities. In the peer review session, students often felt uncertain, not sure they should trust the comments of peers who were at the same linguistic level. Their insecurity often led to a lack of enthusiasm towards this activity. Meanwhile, without the presence of the instructor, some students came to peer review sessions under-prepared because of their heavy course loads, communicating disrespect to others and seriously hindering the mutual exchange among peers. This problem of students not trusting their peers and arriving without adequate preparation called into question the real value of peer review.

Another problem was related to the one-on-one teacher-student conferencing. Besides totally exhausting the teacher who repetitively talked with each individual student about similar rhetorical or grammatical mistakes, the tutorials were of questionable benefit as the students often followed the instructor's advice without fully understanding the comments. They were able to revise their drafts based on the teacher's comments, but it became evident that the students frequently did not remember the reasons for their revisions and thus made the same mistakes again in later assignments.

Action. To resolve these problems, I incorporated peer review activities into the conferencing. As the instructor as well as a NNES teacher who had gone through a similar learning process, I participated in the peer review activities by assuming the role of a peer. Instead of dominating the discussion, I had the group select a leader to facilitate the discussion. I sometimes participated in the discussion by confirming peers' comments and sometimes questioned the writer's and peers' comments in order to stimulate further discussion. I gave my written comments on peer review sheets at the end of the discussion of each student's paper, as did the other peers. As a participant, my role was not only to offer comments but also to provide support and encouragement so that the student whose paper was being reviewed would feel comfortable and confident in assessing the different options and suggestions from peers (myself as peer included). The peers, on the other hand, would have to be well prepared to actively participate in commenting, arguing, and debating issues of concern when their teacher was present as a peer.

Findings. Data were collected via surveys, open-ended questionnaires, and interviews with the ESL students in an effort to address three research questions:

1. How do students in ESL composition courses perceive peer review, tutorials, and peer review with and without the instructor?
2. Why do they like or dislike peer review with the instructor as opposed to either peer review without the instructor or one-on-one tutorials?
3. What salient factors are involved or need to be addressed regarding the effectiveness of peer review with the instructor?

Both survey and open-ended questionnaires revealed that the majority of students liked peer review with the instructor because they could easily check with the instructor when receiving feedback from different perspectives. This made students feel more secure. The majority of the students thought that peer review with the instructor facilitated their decision-making about which feedback to accept or reject. Also the interview data revealed the students' belief that peer review with the instructor helped prepare them to be careful, critical, and sensitive reviewers of others' as well as of their own papers. By contributing and listening to the critiques of their peers' papers, they were more aware of their own writing problems and were better able to revise their own writing.

Implications. Combining peer review with student-teacher conferencing was an attempt to empower NNES students in their academic writing classes. The success of this attempt was enhanced by a number of factors. The primary factor, I believe, was my NNES status. As I had gone through a similar process of learning how to write in English for academic purposes, my role as a peer was easily accepted and naturally maintained. Any uneasiness students felt about being judged or evaluated was soon overtaken by the excitement and enthusiasm created by their active participation. The above example thus shows how a NNES professional can serve as a role model by sharing learning experiences, anticipating difficulties in writing in English, and providing needed help and timely advice in the composing processes.

Example 2: Sharing My Own Academic Writing Experiences

Context. ESL students who are learning to write academic papers often request samples that the teacher considers high quality. Because of their L1 writing training, international students in general, and Asian students in particular, tend to value the content and rhetoric of these samples. They make a realistic assessment of how they can work effectively and efficiently to produce similar high quality papers. To address this need, the writing teacher feels compelled to find writing models.

The problem. It is very difficult to match the students' current writing skills with a sample paper that will serve as a model. That is, professional writing samples (e.g., published journal articles) are either rhetorically too sophisticated for the students to appreciate at their current English proficiency levels or too long for them to imitate. As a result, many ESL students do not benefit from reading models despite their expressed desire to have them. Using previous students' writing (anonymous and with consent) as samples for class discussion is welcomed by students. Such student sample papers provide a realistic product for students to emulate. However, a problem with student sample papers is that the teacher cannot explain why certain ideas were included in the text or what revisions were made during the process of writing. Therefore, the process of writing and revising, a very important aspect to include in the teaching of writing, is not only unrevealed but cannot be revealed.

Action. In order to show the writer's mindset in composing and revising, I used my own writing samples. I would usually give my students an early draft on the same topic as the one they had been given without disclosing that I was the author. I invited students to critique the paper in small groups in class. In the next class, I would show them a second draft based on their comments and suggestions and invite them to make further comments. A few days later, I would show them the final draft and ask them to compare it with the previous drafts and justify why certain changes had been made or not. At this time I would claim authorship and share with my students the processes of writing and revision, as well as the dilemmas I faced in the writing process.

Findings. In looking at the results of the action research project, I mainly focused on one question: What effect does the use of my writing samples have on students' attitudes toward writing and on the improvement of their own writing? My observations, informal interviews with undergraduate and graduate students, and the end-of-term evaluations over several quarters produced consistently positive findings. The majority of students not only welcomed the use of my samples but also felt that they benefited from understanding my thought processes in shaping a paper through several drafts. They also realized the importance of feedback from both teacher and peers in the process of writing and revising. Such awareness contributed to their enthusiasm and attention in undertaking peer review activities and accepting teacher comments.

Implications. By using my own writing and by undertaking revision based on my students' input, the writing process became lively and engaging.

By sharing my experiences as a NNES writer, I demonstrated to my ESL students that no one can write a good paper without revisions and no one can effectively revise a paper without receiving comments and critiques. This sharing greatly empowered my students to understand the processes of writing, peer critiquing, and revising and led them to understand the importance of reflecting on their own writing experiences.

In teaching ESL composition courses, I also shared with students my struggles in transitioning from writing in my L1 to writing in my L2. I told my students that although in China I had succeeded in publishing many papers and books written in Chinese, during my first few quarters at OSU, I had difficulty writing papers in English because of the influence of my L1. It was not the content but the discourse that made the difference. My Chinese way of thinking had a great impact on how I composed in English. I soon realized that in order to maintain my L2 literacy and L2 social identity, I had to understand the fundamental thinking processes that the target culture accepted and the way that my L1 culture could be accepted. I learned U.S. discourse and rhetoric, and I made an effort to adapt my writing style to fit the general preference of a U.S. audience. The result? I have had a few papers published. However, the process of adaptation does not mean that I lost my Chinese writing style. I still see the legitimacy and beauty of Chinese writing even though I do not practice it in U.S. academia.

Despite the success of my action research, dilemmas have surfaced and have raised many questions. Will my prescription of strategies restrict my students' freedom of thought and expression? Will my requirement that students adopt U.S. academic standards do a great disservice by inhibiting them from reflecting their own cultures and ideologies? Will my dense reading and writing assignments burden students to the extent that they become passive learners? Will the use of my early writing as samples limit my students' opportunities to see model articles? Will my emphasis on discourse in writing discourage students from concentrating on eliminating grammatical errors? As I continue to think about these questions, I am reminded of other issues important to teaching ESL composition such as learner autonomy, self-directed learning, and self-empowerment.

Afterthoughts

As a nonnative English speaker, I am proud to be a member of the TESOL profession. I am also proud to be aware of the ramifications of being a NNES professional. The success of TESOL professionals does not depend on whether they are native speakers or non-native speakers of English; however, non-native speakers might depend on different instructional approaches than those used by native speakers. Therefore, we need to consider several questions. How can we as non-native speakers of English take advantage of our experience learning the language we are teaching and collaborate with our NES colleagues to make teaching more effective and rewarding? How can we incorporate non-native speakers' viewpoints regarding factors such as authenticity in language, social identity in communities, and cultural diversity in language classrooms? How can we best provide opportunities for our NNES students to empower themselves? And finally, what can we, as NNES professionals, do to empower ourselves? I believe we need to constantly ask ourselves these questions because in the process of forming questions, we can begin to find answers.

Author

Jun Liu is assistant professor of English at the University of Arizona. His research interests include sociocultural and sociopolitical aspects of second language learning and teaching in both ESL and EFL contexts, classroom-oriented research methodology, and L2 writing. He has published in TESOL Quarterly, ELT Journal, Journal of Asian Pacific Communication, *and* Educational Research Quarterly. *His forthcoming books include* Asian Students' Classroom Communication Patterns in U.S. Universities *(Greenwood Publishing) and* Peer Response *(co-authored) (Michigan University Press). A recipient of the 1999 TESOL Newbury House Award for Excellence in Teaching and past chairperson of NNEST Caucus in TESOL, Jun Liu is currently on the TESOL Board of Directors serving as Director at Large (2001-2004).*

Endnotes

[1] Adaptive cultural transformation competence is the knowledge that enables an individual to communicate appropriately and effectively in the target culture by expanding his or her social identity to one that blends the new set of values, habits, and social norms endorsed in the target culture with those in the home culture. Such a higher-level competence is needed in appropriate and effective cultural adaptation, accommodation, and acculturation in order to develop successful second language proficiency in multiple contexts.

[2] Instrumental motivation commonly refers to the desire of a learner to achieve proficiency for reasons connected to another goal (e.g., to attain career, financial, or educational goals). Integrative motivation, on the other hand, refers to the learner's desire to achieve proficiency due to a positive attitude toward the target language and culture and a desire to become like members of that target culture (Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

[3] Action research involves participant intervention in a real-life classroom setting. Most frequently, the researcher participant poses a research question and then seeks to answer this question by collecting data and closely examining actual practices in the chosen context. This research typically culminates in suggestions that would improve the teaching practice (Nunan, 1989).

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Teaching in Kindergarten Through Grade 12 Programs: Perceptions of Native and Nonnative English-Speaking Practitioners

■ **This study compared the perceptions of two groups of kindergarten through grade 12 (K-12) practitioners, native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and nonnative English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), in relation to their professional preparation, their level of job satisfaction, and their degree of comfort teaching various skill areas. Quantitative and qualitative analyses of a survey administered to 55 NESTs and 32 NNESTs in Southern California showed that a complex set of similarities and differences characterized the K-12 NESTs and NNESTs who participated in this investigation. The similarities identified included the positive views of the two groups about their professional preparation and the support received from formal networks (e.g., mentoring programs) and informal networks (e.g., colleagues, friends, and relatives). The two groups were also similar in their positive self-reported level of job satisfaction and their positive perceptions of their English language skills. One of the differences was the grades they taught, with a higher percentage of NNESTs teaching early elementary grades. Additionally, NNESTs were slightly more negative than NESTs in their evaluation of school administrators, exhibited more positive self-perceptions about their instructional abilities, and saw their nonnative status as contributing to their professional abilities. The results of this preliminary investigation suggest the need for further research on NNESTs and for the development of collaborative projects between master of art (MA) degree programs in**

Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and K-12 programs designed to benefit future teachers, regardless of their language background.

Over the past few years, interest has grown in issues related to language and ethnic minority practitioners in the field of TESOL. Recent publications have looked at the perceived advantages and disadvantages of NNESTs in English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL) classrooms (e.g., Medgyes, 1992, 1994; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999), perceived attitudes toward NNESTs (e.g., Amin, 1997; Tang, 1997), and the struggles and triumphs of NNESTs (e.g., Braine, 1999; Connor, 1999; Thomas, 1999).

Much of the research cited above has focused on NNESTs in EFL contexts (Medgyes, 1992; 1994; Tang, 1997), adult ESL classes (Amin, 1997), or college-level courses (Braine, 1999; Thomas, 1999). The present study was designed to focus on practitioners in K-12 contexts, specifically K-12 practitioners from a language minority background. The focus on this group was motivated by two factors. First, there is limited research on NNESTs teaching at the K-12 level. Second, prior research (Kamhi-Stein, Lee, & Lee, 1999) and informal interviews of MA TESOL students suggest that U.S.-based NNESTs seem to favor teaching at the K-12 level over other levels. Therefore, we designed the current study to compare the perceptions regarding professional preparation and job satisfaction between K-12 NESTs and NNESTs. The study was also designed to look at the perceptions of K-12 NESTs and K-12 NNESTs regarding their English language skills and teaching preferences.

Background

This investigation included four broad areas of research: (a) teacher confidence, (b) self-perceived language needs, (c) self-perceived prejudice, and (d) mentoring concerns. Following is a summary of research in each of the four areas.

Teacher Confidence

A few studies have focused on factors affecting the confidence of teachers from ethnic and language minority backgrounds. For example, Freeman, Brookhart, and Loadman (1999) investigated beginning teachers in high-diversity schools and concluded that these teachers "tend to encounter a complex and challenging teaching environment, struggle to form meaningful relations with their students, and be less satisfied with their jobs" (p. 107). In another study of five novice Cantonese-dominant secondary English teachers in Hong Kong, Pennington and Richards (1997) reported that the teachers discarded a communicative methodology in favor of a product-oriented approach to instruction. Possible factors explaining this finding include the following: a heavy teaching load, large class sizes, students' low proficiency in

English and lack of discipline, closeness in age between the students and beginning teachers, personal experience of the new teachers while in school, low job satisfaction, low perceived effectiveness in their first year of teaching, and the school culture. Another factor affecting the confidence of NNESTs is challenges to their credibility (Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999; Thomas, 1999). According to Thomas, NNESTs are challenged by professionals in the TESOL field, by professional organizations, and by students.

Self-Perceived Language Needs

The self-perceived language needs of NNESTs is another area of research that has received some attention within the literature. Specifically, several studies have identified pronunciation (Barkhuizen, 1997; Tang, 1997), writing, vocabulary (including idioms and slang), and cultural knowledge as areas of perceived difficulty (Kamhi-Stein, Lee, & Lee, 1999; Liu, 1999; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999; Tang, 1997). While two studies (Kamhi-Stein, Lee, & Lee, 1999; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999) have shown that lack of English proficiency does not have a negative effect on the instructional practices of NNESTs, another study (Li, 1998) has concluded that, in some cases, NNESTs view their variety of English as deficient and argue that lack of English proficiency constrains them when implementing communicative methodologies.

Self-Perceived Prejudice

Research has also shown that another area of concern for NNESTs is self-perceived prejudice based on ethnicity, nonnative status, or both (Amin, 1997; Canagarajah, 1999; Kamhi-Stein, Lee, & Lee, 1999; Thomas, 1999). Montemayor (1991) also identified a few critical issues that minority teachers face as they begin teaching, some generic to all teachers and some specific to their situation:

1. They may face isolation and separation from their ethnic group culture.
2. They may experience teacher bashing and the media's distrust of public education.
3. They may be expected to advocate for their ethnic group and solve emerging problems. Also, they may be relied on to communicate with parents, especially when language is a factor.
4. They may "burn out" trying to meet the needs of bilingual programs while working under the stigma of teaching in a "bilingual" rather than a "regular" program.
5. They may feel they were hired to fill a quota and provide a minority presence, thus making them feel conspicuous and out-of-place.

Mentoring Concerns

According to Stallworth (1994), it is critical that the teaching profession attract qualified minorities, including those who come from fields outside the teaching profession, since these professionals "bring with them a larger repertoire of life experiences and skills learned in the field and not just from academic preparation" (p. 27). While the mentoring of NNESTs has received no attention in the TESOL field, research suggests that the lack of availability and low quality of mentoring are barriers frequently faced by minority teachers. For example, Stallworth (1994) found that novice teachers from a minority background feel "isolated and incompetent" in their new environment; however, they tend to feel less intimidated when they secure at least one colleague as a mentor to assist them in answering questions "in a nonjudgmental manner" (p. 29).[1] Novice teacher support—in the form of conferencing with mentors, being observed by mentors, and receiving tuition-free graduate courses—has been reported to be helpful and to promote teacher retention (Smith, 1989-90).

Blankenship et al. (1992) outline a set of principles for effectively inducting all beginning teachers while focusing particularly on minority teachers' needs, including the following: (a) the need to meet with other teachers to reflectively discuss classroom experiences, (b) the need to observe experienced teachers, (c) the need to incorporate new and innovative instructional methodologies and resources, (d) the need to learn how to manage time and paperwork wisely, and (e) the need to develop classroom management ideas with diverse student populations.

In summary, the studies reviewed in the above sections suggest that ethnic and language minority teachers face challenges to their professional credibility and prejudice based on ethnicity or nonnative status. Additionally, while so far very little if any research has focused on NNESTs and mentoring issues, some research suggests that lack of quality mentoring is a barrier faced by minority teachers in general. Still missing from the literature is research designed to compare the perceptions of K-12 NESTs and NNESTs in relationship to their professional preparation, their level of job satisfaction, and their teaching preferences.

Research Questions

This study was guided by three research questions.

1. To what extent, if any, are there differences in the perceptions of K-12 NESTs and NNESTs regarding their professional preparation?

2. To what extent, if any, are there differences in the perceptions of K-12 NESTs and NNESTs regarding their job satisfaction?

3. To what extent, if any, are there differences in the perceptions of K-12 NESTs and NNESTs regarding their English language skills and teaching preferences?

Method

Participants

Participants in this study were selected according to two criteria: (a) language status (NESTs and NNESTs) and (b) the type of institution in which they taught (K-12). The participants in this study were 55 NESTs and 32

NNESTs teaching in K-12 programs in Southern California. All of the 55 NESTs reported being born in the U.S. Additionally, nearly 65% of the NESTs reported being Caucasian, 13% reported being Asian, 7% reported being African-American, Latino, or other, and the remaining 16% did not provide information on race or ethnicity.

Of the 32 NNESTs, 59% reported they were born outside the U.S. Specifically, 31% of NNESTs were born in Mexico, 13% in Taiwan, 9% in Korea, and 6% in El Salvador and Vietnam. The other 41% were born in the U.S. Of the 32 NNESTs, 44% reported being Latinos, 38% reported being Asian, 9% reported being Caucasian, 3% reported being African-American, and 7% did not report race or ethnicity. Additionally, at the time of the study, 88% of the NNESTs reported having lived in the U.S. for 10 or more years. While 41% of the NNESTs reported speaking Spanish as a first language, only 19% reported speaking Spanish at home at the time of the study.

Instrument

A survey was designed to provide information on the above three research questions.[2] Survey items were developed based upon a national survey of graduates of teacher education courses (Loadman, Freeman, Brookhart, Rahman, & McCague, 1999). A pilot copy of the survey was administered and revised. The revised version of the survey instrument had three main sections requiring participants to respond to questions on a Likert-scale as well as to open-ended questions. The first section, "Demographic Information," contained 14 questions designed to provide information on the participants' age, ethnic background, and degrees completed and in progress. The second section, "Professional Information," contained 66 questions designed to provide information on the participants' schools and their current teaching assignments, the participants' reported job satisfaction and future plans, and the participants' perceptions regarding the quality of formal mentoring they received and the quality of their interactions with school faculty and staff. The third section, "Language Background," contained 21 questions designed to provide information on the participants' perceptions regarding their English language skills as well as perceptions about the NNESTs' strengths and weaknesses.

Data Collection and Analysis

The survey was distributed and collected in two ways. First, copies of the survey were administered during the summer quarter of 2000 within the Charter College of Education at California State University, Los Angeles (CSULA). Second, copies of the survey were mailed to selected K-12 programs with a stamped, self-addressed return envelope. Mailed responses were collected over a six-week period.

Survey responses were analyzed using quantitative and qualitative techniques. Specifically, survey responses were analyzed for descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, overall frequencies, and percentages) using the

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Version 9.0, 1998). Open-ended responses were analyzed qualitatively by engaging in a process of recursive reading of the survey instruments, identifying recurring responses, and assigning them to tentative themes (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The process was completed by naming the themes.

Findings

This section presents findings for the quantitative and qualitative analyses.

Quantitative Findings

General profile of the participants. Table 1 shows that NESTS and NNESTs had a variety of teaching assignments. However, as can be seen in Table 1, a larger percentage of NNESTs reported teaching early elementary grades (NNESTs = 41%, NESTs = 18%). Additionally, while the same percentage of NESTS and NNESTs reported teaching senior high school (16%), a larger percentage of NESTs reported teaching middle school or junior high school (NESTs = 26%, NNESTs = 22%).

Table 1
Teaching Assignment by Language Status

Teaching Assignment	*NESTs*		*NNESTs*	
	N	%	*N*	%
Pre-school	2	4	0	0
Early elementary	10	18	13	41
Upper elementary	5	9	3	9
Middle school/junior high	14	26	7	22
Senior high school	9	16	5	16
Early & upper elementary	2	4	1	3
Senior high school & adult ESL	0	0	1	3
Early elementary & adult ESL	0	0	1	3
Senior high school & intensive English program	0	0	1	3
Other combinations	13	23	0	0

Table 2 presents information on the participants' length of service in their current positions. According to the results presented in the table, NESTs were somewhat more experienced than NNESTs. Specifically, 75% of the NESTS and 87% of the NNESTs had been in their current positions for four years or less.

Table 2
Current Teaching Experience by Language Status

Length of Service in the Current Teaching Position	*NESTs*		*NNESTs*	
	N	*%*	*N*	*%*
Less than one year	12	22	3	9
One to two years	19	35	17	53
Two to four years	10	18	8	25
More than four years	14	25	4	13

Perceptions regarding professional preparation. Table 3 presents descriptive statistics for the participants' perceptions regarding professional preparation. As can be seen in the table, both NESTs and NNESTs viewed their credential program preparation as being between "average" and "above average." In contrast, while NESTs rated their MA program preparation as being between "average" and "above average," NNESTs rated their MA program preparation as being "above average."

Table 3
Perceptions About Professional Preparation

Type of Program	*NESTs*		*NNESTs*	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Credential	3.55	.59	3.71	.69
MA	3.60	.50	4.00	.95

Note. Scale: 1 = unacceptable, 2 = below average, 3 = average, 4 = above average, 5 = exceptional

Perceptions regarding job satisfaction. Tables 4 and 5 present information on the participants' perceptions regarding job satisfaction. As indicated in Table 4, NESTs and NNESTs were similar in their overall job satisfaction. Specifically, the mean for overall job satisfaction for NESTs and NNESTs was closer to "positive" than to "somewhat positive," although NESTs were slightly more positive than NNESTs (M = 3.94, SD = 1.02; M = 3.83, SD = .83, respectively). As shown in Table 5, the job feature that NESTs and NNESTs rated highest (between "positive" and "very positive") was "interactions with students." While "salary/fringe benefits" received the lowest mean rating for NESTs (between "negative" and "somewhat positive"), "general work conditions," including class size and work load, received the lowest mean rating for NNESTs ("somewhat positive").

Table 4
Perceptions Regarding Overall Job Satisfaction

Quality Rating	*NESTs*		*NNESTs*	
	M	***SD***	***M***	***SD***
Overall satisfaction	3.94	1.02	3.83	.83

Note. Scale: 1 = very negative, 2 = negative, 3 = somewhat positive, 4 = positive, 5 = very positive

Table 5
Perceptions Regarding Various Job Features

Job Features	*NESTs*		*NNESTs*	
	M	***SD***	***M***	***SD***
Interactions with students	4.44	.79	4.50	.72
Interactions with colleagues	3.98	.95	3.84	1.10
Professional autonomy	3.96	.88	3.73	.74
Interactions with parents	3.81	.96	3.87	.99
Interactions with administrators	3.87	1.07	3.61	1.02
Opportunities for professional advancement	3.34	1.04	3.53	.98
General work conditions	3.30	1.22	3.00	1.11
Salary/fringe benefits	2.78	1.11	3.30	.93

Note. Scale: 1 = very negative, 2 = negative, 3 = somewhat positive, 4 = positive, 5 = very positive

Table 6 summarizes the participants' perceptions regarding the quality of faculty-staff interactions. As shown in the table, "respect for minorities" received the highest mean rating. Specifically, both groups viewed faculty and staff interactions to be "respectful of minorities" (M = 4.11, SD = .98, M = 4.11, SD = 1.01 for NESTs and NNESTs respectively). In contrast, the two groups ranked different variables lowest. NESTs gave "networking" a mean rating of 3.67, indicating that the participants' views about faculty-staff "networking" was between "somewhat positive" and "positive." The lowest-ranked feature for NNESTs was "clarity of school requirements" (M = 3.34, SD = 1.11), indicating that the NNESTs' mean rating of "clarity of school requirements" was closer to "somewhat positive" than to "positive."

Table 6
Perceptions Regarding Faculty and Staff Interactions

Features of Faculty and Staff Interactions	*NESTs* *M*	*SD*	*NNESTs* *M*	*SD*
Respect for minorities	4.11	.98	4.11	1.01
Sharing of resources	3.97	.91	3.65	.97
Respect for novice teachers	3.90	1.04	3.67	1.14
Openness to new ideas	3.77	1.19	3.62	.97
Clarity of school requirements	3.77	1.09	3.34	1.11
Networking	3.67	.96	3.42	.91

Note. Scale: 1 = very negative, 2 = negative, 3 = somewhat positive, 4 = positive, 5 = very positive

NESTs and NNESTs did not differ in their perceptions regarding their schools' support. As indicated in Table 7, the mean for "quality of formal mentoring" for both groups was "between average" and "strong." Additionally, both groups of practitioners reported meeting with their mentor teachers at least "once a month." However, the slightly higher mean for NESTs (*M* = 3.61, *SD* = .92 vs. *M* = 3.29, *SD* = .91 for NNESTs) suggests that NESTs meet somewhat more frequently with their teacher mentors than NNESTs.

Table 7
Perceptions Regarding School Support

Mentoring Ratings	*NESTs* *M*	*SD*	*NNESTs* *M*	*SD*
Quality of formal mentoring	2.32	.82	2.50	.52
Frequency of formal mentoring	3.61	.92	3.29	.91

Note. Scale, Quality of mentoring: 1 = weak, 2 = average, 3 = strong
Scale, Frequency of mentoring: 1 = never, 2 = once a semester, 3 = once a month, 4 = once a week

Table 8 presents a ranking of the participants' perceptions regarding the different kinds of support received. According to the table, "support from family and friends" was at the top of the ranking for both NESTs and NNESTs. Following in the ranking in descending order for both groups were "support from school colleagues," "support from school administrators," and "support from pre-service courses."

Table 8
Ranking by Type of Support Currently Received

Type of Support	*NESTs*		*NNESTs*	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Support from family and friends	4.20	.78	3.79	.79
Support from school colleagues	3.76	.97	3.70	.88
Support from school administrators	3.62	1.07	3.34	1.11
Support from pre-service courses	3.37	0.96	3.13	.90

Note. Scale: 1 = unacceptable, 2 = below average, 3 = average, 4 = above average, 5 = exceptional

Participants' perceptions regarding their English language skills. Table 9 summarizes the participants' perceptions regarding their English language skills. As can be seen in the table, while NESTs viewed their overall language skills as being between "very good" and "excellent," NNESTs perceived their overall English language skills as being between "good" and "very good" (although the mean was closer to "very good"). Additionally, NESTs and NNESTs differed in their individual language skill areas that they rated highest and lowest. Specifically, the highest self-rated skill area was reading for NESTs and listening for NNESTs. In contrast, the lowest self-rated skill area was grammar for NESTs and pronunciation for NNESTs.

Table 9
Perceived English Language Skills by Language Status

Skills	*NESTs*		*NNESTs*	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Overall	4.35	.76	3.97	.78
Reading	4.45	.79	4.13	.75
Listening	4.42	.74	4.22	.83
Speaking	4.27	.87	3.88	.66
Pronunciation	4.29	.94	3.75	.88
Writing	4.22	.92	3.81	.83
Grammar	4.09	.89	3.97	.93

Note. Scale: 1 = poor, 2 = fair, 3 = good, 4 = very good, 5 = excellent

Table 10 summarizes information on the participants' self-reported degree of comfort teaching the different skill areas. As shown in the table, while the means for NESTs ranged from "somewhat comfortable" to "comfortable," the means for NNESTs were within the "comfortable" category. Table 10 shows that NESTs reported feeling comfortable teaching pronunciation, speaking, listening, writing, and reading, in decreasing order, but only

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somewhat comfortable teaching grammar. In contrast, NNESTs reported feeling comfortable teaching all six skill areas, including reading, listening, speaking, writing, pronunciation, and grammar, in decreasing order.

Table 10
Teaching Comfort in English by Language Status

Skills	*NESTs*		*NNESTs*	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Pronunciation	3.26	.76	3.25	.67
Speaking	3.24	.70	3.28	.63
Listening	3.24	.78	3.38	.61
Writing	3.11	.86	3.25	.62
Reading	3.11	.90	3.41	.61
Grammar	2.98	.81	3.25	.72

Note. Scale: 1 = not comfortable at all, 2 = somewhat comfortable, 3 = comfortable, 4 = very comfortable

Table 11 summarizes information regarding the participants' perceptions about their instructional abilities. As can be seen in the table, the mean rating for NESTs was slightly lower than that for NNESTs. While NNESTs perceived themselves to be "better than average" teachers, NESTs perceived themselves to be between "average" and "better than average."

Table 11
Self-Perceptions About Instructional Abilities

Language Status	*Self Perceptions About Instructional Abilities*	
	M	*SD*
NESTs	3.82	.69
NNESTs	4.04	.64

Note. Scale: 1 = inferior, 2 = below average, 3 = average, 4 = better than average, 5 = exceptional

Qualitative Findings

The open-ended survey questions were analyzed qualitatively in order to identify the perceived difficulties faced by NNESTs as well as their sources of strength. The analysis allowed the identification of two areas of perceived difficulty: "communication skills" and "vocabulary skills." According to the survey respondents, effective communication was sometimes hindered by the "nonnative" status of students and teachers alike. One teacher noted: "Nonnativeness both from students and teachers may hinder effective communication" (#74). However, another participant made the following comment:

> Sometimes they [NNES teachers] are afraid that they're going to make a mistake when speaking; they need to realize that everyone makes mistakes when speaking and writing. (#35)

The respondents noted that "vocabulary skills" were the second area of difficulty for NNESTs. Specifically, survey respondents agreed that lack of an adequate vocabulary might interfere with NNESTs' ability to teach. One commented: "Lack of prior knowledge of vocabulary is a hindrance when teaching."

The qualitative analysis of the open-ended survey questions allowed the identification of three sources of strengths for the NNESTs: "cultural awareness," "empathy," and "linguistic advantage provided by the nonnative status." First, the survey respondents agreed that NNESTs can strengthen the school curriculum by bringing to the classroom their "cultural awareness," involving but not limited to an understanding of two or more cultures, multicultural experiences, and a broad world view. A participant summarized this idea as follows:

> Diverse cultural background contributes to a multicultural learning environment, which can help students broaden their perception of the world. (# 46)

Second, many of the survey respondents explained that another feature that characterized NNESTs was their empathy. They explained that second language (L2) students usually see their NNESTs as role models with whom they can identify and relate. Specifically, NNESTs were seen as being able to understand the difficulty of learning a new language since they had gone through the L2 learning process and were, therefore, especially sensitive to the language needs of their ESL students. The following observations reflect these points:

> NNES teachers tend to be more successful in reaching students who can relate culturally or linguistically to them. (#16)

> Because of their nonnative status, they had to "rise" above and usually, in my experience, they were better teachers, more sensitive too…(#127)

> [NNESTs have] the ability to understand the difficulty of learning a new language, different methods of acquiring the English language…and can share personal experiences. (#76)

Finally, survey respondents agreed that NNESTs are characterized by what might be called a "linguistic advantage provided by the nonnative status." Many survey respondents teaching elementary grades agreed that the NNESTs' ability to communicate with their students' parents promoted positive parent-teacher rapport. At the same time, survey respondents explained that NNESTs become interpreters of the U.S. school culture for students. They also help immigrant parents understand how U.S. schools operate and how they can assist their children in becoming successful learners. The following two comments reflect what was said about this issue:

> They provide a communication link to some students; similar to an interpreter…(#37)
>
> [They have] good communication skills with parents who speak their language and ability to translate school newsletters, etc.…(#113)

Discussion and Conclusions

This study provided information on K-12 NNESTs, a group of practitioners that, so far, have received little attention within the literature on nonnative English-speaking professionals. NESTs and NNESTs in this study differed in their teaching assignments. While 41% of the NNESTs in this study reported teaching elementary grades, only 18% of the NESTs in this study reported teaching at that level. This finding suggests that NNESTs find teaching elementary grades to be an appealing career choice (Kamhi-Stein, Lee, & Lee, 1999). This result may be explained by the qualitative findings in this investigation, supporting the notion that when teaching elementary grades, NNESTs have a linguistic advantage both inside and outside the classroom because of their first language (L1) skills. NNESTs may strengthen the school curriculum by bringing a unique world view to the classroom. Outside the classroom, NNESTs who share their students' L1 can easily communicate with parents and can serve as cultural brokers. However, great caution should be taken when making generalizations about these findings since the sample in this study was small and not randomly selected. It is unclear whether the same results would be obtained with a larger, randomly selected sample.

The results of this study also showed that NESTs and NNESTs shared positive views of their pre-service and in-service training. Specifically, both NESTs and NNESTs were positive about their preparation in credential and MA programs, although NNESTs were slightly more positive than NESTs. Additionally, both NESTs and NNESTs rated the formal mentoring they received in their schools as being between "average" and "strong." Both groups reported meeting with their mentors at least "once a month," although NESTs reported meeting with their mentor teachers more often than NNESTs did. In any case, this fact did not affect the NNESTs' perceptions about the quality of the mentoring received, as shown by the small difference in mean ratings between NNESTs and NESTs (*M* difference = .18).

The support received by the NESTs and NNESTs in this study came from formal networks, including mentoring programs organized by the teachers' schools, as well as "from informal networks such as their school colleagues." Both NESTs and NNESTs rated this informal support as closer to "above average" than to "average," which supports the notion that novice teachers, regardless of language status, benefit from developing support networks that enable them to deal with the demands of the school culture. Informal support networks, like the ones provided by teacher colleagues, can promote a positive school environment (Stallworth, 1994) and can ultimately contribute to teacher retention.

A further similarity between NESTs and NNESTs was their self-reported job satisfaction. Specifically, the mean rating for overall job satisfaction for both groups was closer to "positive" than to "somewhat positive," although the mean rating for NESTs was slightly more positive than that for NNESTs. The job feature that both groups rated highest was "interactions with students." This finding is not surprising given that teachers' responsibilities center on students and their instructional and emotional needs. Other factors contributing to overall job satisfaction for NESTs were "interactions with colleagues," "professional autonomy," "interactions with administrators," and "respect for minorities." On the other hand, overall job satisfaction, for NESTs, seemed to be negatively affected by factors like "salary/fringe benefits," "general work conditions," and "opportunities for professional advancement." In the case of NNESTs, overall job satisfaction seemed to be positively affected by factors like "interactions with parents," "interactions with colleagues," and "respect for minorities," and it seemed to be negatively affected by factors like "salary/fringe benefits" and "general work conditions." Future research needs to be done in this area. Specifically, future studies need to look at larger samples and rely on inferential analysis techniques to determine the extent to which various job features contribute to job satisfaction and ultimately promote the retention of NESTs and NNESTs.

NESTs and NNESTs were similar in that neither group perceived their English language skills to be "poor" or "fair." However, when compared to NNESTs, NESTs were found to have slightly more positive views of their English language skills. Specifically, while the mean ratings for the NESTs' self-reported English language skills ranged from "very good" (for grammar) to close to "excellent" (for reading), the means for NNESTs were close to "very good" (for pronunciation) and "very good" (for listening). The findings related to English language skills perceptions confirm prior research on NNESTs that has shown that pronunciation is an area of concern for NNESTs in EFL contexts (Medgyes, 1994). However, unlike typical EFL teachers, most of the NNESTs in this investigation had resided in the U.S. for 10 or more years and their mean rating for pronunciation approached "very good." Nevertheless, pronunciation still turned out to be the skill area with the lowest mean for NNESTs.

This study's findings related to grammar confirm a prior study (Kamhi-Stein, Lee, & Lee, 1999) showing that long-term U.S. residence was negatively related to NNESTs' views about their English grammar skills. In the current study, grammar was ranked as the third best skill area for NNESTs and it was ranked as the weakest skill area for NESTs. Additionally, while NNESTs reported feeling comfortable teaching grammar, their mean for degree of comfort teaching grammar was lower than that for reading, listening, speaking, writing, and pronunciation. It would seem that, in the area of grammar, the NNESTs in this study were, in some way, different from EFL teachers in other studies (e.g., Medgyes, 1994; Tang, 1997) who felt that grammar was one of their strongest areas. The results of this investigation could be attributed to the fact that 88% of the NNESTs in the study had lived in the U.S. for 10 years or more. However, it is not certain that the results of this investigation can be replicated with other groups of NNESTs with long-term U.S. residency.

The results of this investigation contradict prior findings in the area of speaking skills. In this study, speaking was ranked as the fourth best skill area for NESTs and NNESTs alike. This finding does not support the notion that speaking is an area of concern for NNESTs (Medgyes, 1994) and could be explained by the fact that the NNESTs in the current study differed from the teachers in Medgyes' investigation in their length of U.S. residence, as well as in their opportunities to be exposed to and to use the English language.

NESTs and NNESTs were found to differ in more than one way. First, NNESTs were slightly less positive than NESTs in their evaluation of school administrators in the areas of "current support given by administrators" and "interactions with administrators." One possible explanation for this difference could be that a higher percentage of NNESTs had been in their current teaching position for four years or less compared to the NESTs. As already noted, novice teachers benefit from the support of informal and formal networks, including but not limited to relatives, colleagues and, mentor teachers. This finding suggests that school administrators may need to play a more central role in helping novice teachers adapt to and cope with the demands of schools (Kamhi-Stein, 2000).

NNESTs' were also slightly more positive about their instructional abilities than were the NESTs. The NNESTs' slightly more positive perception was reflected in the group's slightly higher mean ratings for degree of teaching comfort for various skill areas such as speaking, listening, writing, reading, and grammar. The differences in perceptions could be attributed to the NNESTs' slightly more positive views about their professional preparation. It could also be argued that three other factors—the NNESTs' strong sense of cultural awareness, their empathy, and their ability to communicate with their students' parents—also contributed to the NNESTs' positive perceptions about their instructional abilities.

To conclude, the results of this investigation suggest that a complex set of similarities and differences characterize K-12 NESTs and NNESTs. Among the similarities are the teachers' views about their professional preparation, their perspectives on formal and informal mentoring networks, their level of overall job satisfaction, and their perceptions about their English language skills. NESTs and NNESTs in this study differed in the grades they tended to teach (with a higher percentage of NNESTs teaching early elementary grades), in their evaluation of school administrators (with NNESTs being slightly less positive), and in their perceptions about their instructional abilities (with NNESTs having more positive perceptions).

Given the findings of this study and our own experiences with NNESTs, four recommendations are in order. First, further research needs to be conducted to provide in-depth information about the career choices of NNESTs in ESL and EFL settings. This line of research would seek to answer questions such as the following: To what extent, if any, do NNESTs favor teaching a particular age group? To what extent, if any, do NNESTs favor teaching in a particular setting (e.g., adult ESL programs vs. community college ESL credit programs)? Finally, what are the reasons for these preferences?

Second, future case studies need to be conducted to develop profiles of exemplary K-12 school administrators who have successfully supported newly-hired teachers in general and NNESTS in particular. This line of research would help identify the conditions that must be in place for NNESTs to become an integral part of the school culture and, ultimately, achieve professional success. Some of the questions these case studies should seek to answer about these exemplary administrators include:

1. What kinds of resources do they commit to assist NNESTS in the successful transition from "graduate student" to "novice teacher"?

2. What role, if any, do they play in helping NNESTs develop as professionals?

3. What kind of teaching situation (specifically the teaching load, class size, and class structure) do they assign to NNESTs during their first year on the job?

4. What role do they play in helping NNESTs understand the purposes and consequences of the various types of evaluations?

Third, the findings in this investigation support the notion that nonnative status contributes to the development of positive self-perceptions regarding professional practices. Teachers in the current study viewed their nonnative status as a professional asset. Future research needs to investigate NNESTs in different instructional settings in order to help develop an in-depth understanding of the relationship among pedagogical practices, self-perceptions about professional preparation, and self-perceptions about English language proficiency.

And finally, although not entirely supported by our findings, we wish to argue on the basis of our collective experience with NNESTS that MA TESOL programs should enter into what might be called "partnership relationships" with K-12 programs (as well as with other types of programs in which MA TESOL graduates may eventually teach). Such partnerships need not be limited to courses like the teaching practicum, in which mentor teachers initiate future teachers into the routines, norms, and behaviors of typical classrooms. Instead, these partnerships could take different forms, involving ongoing K-12 and MA TESOL program collaboration that would benefit both parties. For example, MA students could engage in tasks such as observing exemplary K-12 teachers, completing data collection projects designed to provide information on a particular area of need, tutoring ESL students, providing K-12 teachers and students with assistance in innovative instructional technology, collaborating in the development of curriculum materials, and serving as informants about the language-learning process. In turn, K-12 teachers could provide MA students with models of successful instructional practices, assist them in developing classroom management techniques, provide them with informal support networks, and ultimately help them become acculturated to the demands of the school-site prior to being formally hired.

Completed research in the arenas outlined above coupled with the establishment of collaborative partnerships between institutions would contribute to the understanding of the complex set of factors that affect the instructional practices of nonnative English-speaking professionals, ultimately benefiting both nonnative English-speaking professionals and their students.

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Endnotes

[1] See also Carvalho de Oliveira & Richardson, this issue.

[2] A complete copy of the survey instrument is available from Lía D. Kamhi-Stein, Charter College of Education, California State University, Los Angeles, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032.

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Nativism, the Native Speaker Construct, and Minority Immigrant Women Teachers of English as a Second Language

■ In this article, the author argues that the "native speaker of English" concept is a linguistic manifestation of nativist discourses that construct visible minority immigrant women in First-World countries as being nonnative to the nation state and, thus, as being nonnative speakers of English. This study is based on the experiences of eight minority immigrant women who have taught English as a second language (ESL) to adults in Toronto, Canada. The article explores the teachers' encounters with native speaker ideologies and recounts how they negotiated challenges in the classroom. Using data from the study, the author raises questions about the validity of the native speaker model that is used in ESL programs and suggests that the native-nonnative speaker dichotomy be dismantled, and the native-speaker norm be reconceptualized.

There was a sharp knock on the door of my university office. A graduate student whom I often see at departmental seminars and parties popped his head inside the door and said, "Do you know any native speakers [of English]?" He had a sheet of paper with approximately 20 sentences and phrases, and he wanted a native speaker to go over them. I offered to look at them. He reluctantly handed me the sheet, and I did not find it difficult to give him the "correct" answers. Indeed, the problems and questions were so simple that most teachers of English as a second language (ESL), particularly at the higher levels where there is emphasis on colloquialisms and where you are supposed to have a "feel" for the language, could easily have answered them. I pointed out a few phrases that I would not use and others that I considered to be acceptable. He thanked me and as he was leaving said, "Would a native speaker agree with you on these suggestions?"

I do not know what this Ph.D. candidate did with my input, but I suspect that he did not use it. This seemingly innocuous incident was one of many that left me first, puzzled about my "nonnative speaker" status and second, wondering what the significance of the native speaker is. The first question that comes to mind when I think of such incidents is: What linguistic knowledge does a native speaker of English have that someone who has studied English for many years does not or cannot have? In other words, what is the definitive distinction that this student was trying to voice? And why did the student assume that I am not a native speaker of English? Is it because of my race—that I am a visible minority woman? Is it also because I have a Pakistani accent?[1]

The "native speaker of English" is such a powerful construct, one so embedded in myth, that it is daunting to attempt to disentangle fact from fable. As Nayar (1994) puts it: "Generations of applied linguistic mythmaking in the indubitable superiority and the impregnable infallibility of the 'native speaker' has created stereotypes that die hard" (p. 4). This mythmaking, I suggest, is not only about language competence but is deeply embedded in discourses of racism and colonialism that inform both individual and institutional understandings and evaluations of speakers of nonnative Englishes. The more recent critical literature says as much. For instance, Kachru (1997) considers the native speaker to be a linguistic colonial construct. Pennycook (1998) reaches a similar conclusion, claiming that the native speaker is yet another legacy of colonialism. And Paikeday (1985), commenting on who is seen as a native speaker, says that when people recruit "native speakers" of English, the term appears to be a codeword for White Anglo-Saxon protestants.

I take the position in this paper that the native speaker construct is embedded in the larger discourses of nativism[2] that position visible minority immigrant women as nonnative to the predominantly English-speaking nations of the First World (e.g., to Canada or the U.S.) and that nativist discourses are being mobilized through the native speaker concept. I further argue that immigrant women from the Third World,[3] or from what Kachru (1992) terms Outer Circle and Expanding Circle countries—i.e., countries where English has a history of institutionalized functions and where it has foreign language standing, respectively—are considered nonnative to the predominantly English-speaking countries of the First World, or Inner Circle. By virtue of their race and birth status, these immigrant women are therefore considered nonnative speakers of English and outsiders to Inner Circle societies. To borrow Brah's (1996) words in the context of England, racial minority immigrants are seen as living "in" Canada or the U.S., but are not seen as being "of" these countries.

This paper is based on a study that investigates the experiences of visible minority immigrant women teachers of ESL in Canada (Amin, 2000). Highlighting data from 6 of the 8 participants in the study, in this paper I explore their encounters with the discourses of the native speaker and of nativism. I first describe my study, after which I detail its theoretical underpinnings. I then describe the challenges faced by the minority ESL teachers interviewed and how they negotiate these challenges in the classroom. Finally, I look at the implications of my research for English Language Teaching (ELT).

The Study

From 1998 to 1999 I conducted interviews with eight minority immigrant women who had taught or were teaching ESL to adult immigrants in Toronto, Canada in government-financed language programs known commonly as "Settlement ESL." The purpose of my research was to investigate how nativism, in particular the concept of the native speaker, is manifested in the context of ESL and how minority immigrant women teachers of ESL negotiate this linguistic manifestation of cultural nativism (see Amin, 2000 for details of the study).

A few facts about the racial makeup of Canada are helpful here in order to situate the study. In the decade after World War II, one-half of all Canada's immigrants came from the United Kingdom. During the late 1960s, a series of reforms in immigration policy was introduced that resulted in more immigrants coming from countries other than the U.K. Hence, in 1994, only two percent of Canada's immigrants came from the U.K. ("All the King's Horses," 1999) Toronto attracts a large number of the immigrants who come to Canada—approximately 48% of Toronto's population are immigrants, and by year 2001 foreign-born residents will comprise the majority of the Toronto population (City of Toronto, 1998). The overwhelming majority (86%) of teachers in the province's Settlement ESL courses are women, and 35% of them are nonnative speakers (Power Analysis, 1998). The definition of native speaker and nonnative speaker of English used in the Power Analysis study was based on "the first language" (L1) that the instructor learned (B. Power, personal communication, August 25, 1999). Such statistics and judgments about native and nonnative speakers are problematic. The statistics do establish, however, that (a) the local teaching force is multiracial and multicultural, and (b) many ESL teachers are likely to be confronted with nativist discourses.

My participants were visible minority women who grew up in the Third World, immigrated to Canada as adults, and had taught or were teaching Settlement ESL to adult immigrants. These women had backgrounds similar to mine in that English was a major language in their lives in their countries of origin and continued to be a major language in their lives in Canada. I began my interviews with two minority teachers whom I identified with the help of the Toronto and Ontario branches of the professional organization, Teachers of English as a Second Language. The rest were chosen through the "snowball sampling technique" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992, p. 70); that is, I asked the first two teachers interviewed to recommend others. The participants were randomly selected, and data collection consisted of open-ended semi-structured interviews. The participants were: Arun from India, Dina from Surinam, Fayza from Egypt, Iffat from India and Pakistan, Jane from China, Patsy from Kenya, Tasneem from Pakistan, and Violet from Jamaica.[4]

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My research questions were the following:

1. How is nativism, in particular the concept of the native speaker, manifested in the context of ESL?

2. How do visible minority immigrant women teachers of ESL negotiate nativism and the native speaker construct?

Theoretical Background

My study draws on three notions. The first notion is that a racial minority woman's English is heard as the English of a nonnative speaker, of a foreigner. Fiction writer Bharati Mukherjee, who is originally from India and now lives in the U.S., supports this notion by describing her experience as a linguistic and racial Other in her (1985) short story "Hindus." In this story, Leela, the protagonist, expresses well the idea that mouthing English perfectly does not automatically put the speaker in the native speaker category.

Second, this study relies on the notion that the native speaker concept is embedded in nativist discourses that position only Inner Circle speakers of English as having legitimate claims to belonging to their country and of having English as their native language. According to Davies (1991), the first recorded use of native speaker is the following definition by Bloomfield (1933): "The first language a human being learns to speak is his native language, he is a native speaker of this language" (p. 43). Such a definition and other definitions in modern sources (see Amin, 2000, for a discussion on this topic) emphasize conditions and qualities such as (a) birth, parentage, childhood, and (b) intuition. These qualities appear to be embedded in the original meaning of native as "natural." The emphasis in these widely accepted definitions is on the intuition of native speakers who, it is suggested, cannot help knowing what they do about English. This intuition is seen as being tied to the fact that their "mother tongue," or first language, is English.

Third, this study draws on the concept that an immigrant woman's race is a marker of being an immigrant woman and of being nonnative to Inner Circle societies. I argue that this experience of Otherness is reproduced in the ESL classroom through the imagining of the native speaker as White. This concept influences the teaching, classroom materials, and relations between the teacher and learners. The race of the idealized native speaker is spelled out by Leung, Harris, and Rampton (1997), who, building on Rampton's earlier (1990) research, argue that there is an "abstracted notion of an idealised native speaker of English from which ethnic and linguistic minorities are automatically excluded" (p. 546). Leung, Harris, and Rampton appear to be saying that even visible minorities who are born and have grown up in the First World are not seen as native speakers. Another marker of being nonnative is having an accent that is different from the norm of the ESL classroom. I argue that accents, like race, are socially organized, are a linguistic manifestation of nativism, and constitute a new and effective form of racism. Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (1999) argue that "national origin and accent" (p. 416) are crucial characteristics that are socially held to represent those of the native speaker. Drawing on my earlier work (Amin, 1994), I would go one step further and say that a native speaker is imagined as having a White accent, one that is associated with Inner Circle countries such as Britain, the U.S.A, and Canada.

Findings

The challenges faced by nonnative women teachers have been well documented in the recent literature (see Amin, 1999; Kamhi-Stein, 1999; and Thomas, 1999 for a discussion on the topic), and hence I will take only a brief look at the main difficulties reported by my participants. In a Canadian setting, I see all these challenges as stemming from the construction of minority immigrant women as being non-Canadian and the privileging of the native speaker of "Canadian English" by Settlement ESL programs in Canada.

Challenges Faced by Minority Women Teachers

My participants indicated that some of their students initially reacted so negatively to having a non-White teacher that they decided not to return. Fayza, who, as a new immigrant was formerly a student in an ESL class, recognized the investments immigrants have in learning English from a teacher whom they consider to be a Canadian. As I have argued elsewhere (see Amin, 1997), there appears to be a strong connection between the attitudes of the students—many of them new immigrants—to nonnative teachers and their investments in learning English. What are some of these investments? As Rockhill and Tomic (1995) point out, new immigrants who are learning English are defined as "other," as "culturally and linguistically inferior" (p. xi); the discourse of ESL is such that it promises liberation once one has acquired English, and hence new Canadians are invested in what they term "Canadian English." To appreciate what "Canadian" English symbolizes to new Canadians, I turn to Peirce's (1993) study in which she examines the complex interrelationships between power, identity, and language learning of immigrant women. Peirce reveals how much immigrant women want to "speak like them [the dominant group]" (p. 1) to negotiate their social identity. Peirce argues that English should be seen not primarily for its instrumental value, as Ng (1990) does, but as constitutive of and constituted by social identity. It is clear that ESL learners have a great investment in learning Canadian English (see Amin, 1997), while minority immigrant women are positioned as being non-Canadian and hence unable to teach Canadian English.

Nativist discourses that position minority teachers as outside the nation and as nonnative to Canadian English are best exemplified by Iffat's narrative. Iffat's many degrees in English could not compensate her students for what they saw: a visible minority woman and the only non-White teacher in the school. Iffat named one ethnic group after another who "were very hard on me." One such group was from a neighbouring country to Pakistan.

Nuzhat: Like what did they say?

Iffat: "Oh, you're Pakistani." And they, they'd sort of imply that, "Look here, we are in Canada and I'm being taught English by a Pakistani."

But in the multiracial class that she habitually taught, it was not only students of color who were "hard" on her.

Iffat: East Europeans would say, "Ohhh. So you're from Pakistan." They'd just sit there and make me feel sort of bad that, you know.

Nuzhat: So your, your problem with students, over the next twenty or thirty years, did the situation with the students remain the same?

Iffat: Yes, it did remain the same. Because there were all these new immigrants coming in. And every time there would be a revolution somewhere, we would have a whole bunch of new students.

The students at this school were new immigrants, and as Iffat taught the beginners, her students were often those who were very recent arrivals. She says that as the program was only three months long, she could not tell if the students' idea of an ideal ESL teacher changed with time—whether, in fact, this thinking was reinforced or lessened.

Another manifestation of nativism is that minority teachers are perceived as *learners* of English. The interconnected discourses of native speaker, L1, and mother tongue emphasize birth, heredity, and innateness of linguistic ability (see Christophersen, 1988), and hence nonnative teachers can be disadvantaged by being seen as having acquired English rather than having English as part of their inheritance from a mother or father. The recurrent theme in Arun's narrative is that she is considered to be a language learner.

Arun: Students ask me a lot of questions: "Where did you learn English?" "You've learned English well." "How many years did it take you to learn English?" "How long have you been in Canada?" These are the first reactions, because right away when they find out that I'm not from Canada, [they think] I might be lacking in some way. It might be accent or proper Canadian English.

Nuzhat: But what if the teacher was a visible minority woman who was born in Canada or came here as a child?

Arun: It would still be the same. The initial response would be, "Oh, she who herself has learned, how can she teach us?"

Arun is making three points. First, students want a Canadian teacher. Second, students think of Arun as a person who has learned the language and therefore cannot teach it, thus reflecting one of the strongest tenets of English language teaching (ELT), that the ideal teacher is one who has been immersed in English from birth. The third point follows from the second—that if you are not born in an English-only environment, you cannot ever learn English well enough to teach it and definitely will never speak it as well as a native speaker. There is a growing body of literature that shows that a person who has been a language learner can be a better teacher in certain situations than a native speaker or someone who has not formally learned English (see Tang, 1997; Widdowson, 1994). However, it appears that the Inner Circle has been successful in promoting the mystique of the elusive native speaker among new immigrants in ESL programs in Canada. In this context it is worth citing Davies (1991) who points out that there is *no* definition of the native speaker; the only definition seems to be negative, that is, the "native speaker would be someone who is *not* a learner" (p. x). To me, the significance of this negative definition is that "ESL learner" is construed as a static, unchanging identity, and there is no possibility of moving from the identity of ESL learner to that of native speaker. Hence Arun's students think that she cannot be a *teacher* of English.

Nonnative Identities as a Source of Empowerment

The women's experiences in ESL indicate that discourses of colonialism continue to adhere to English in Canada and interlock with racism, sexism, imperialism, and the women's Third World status to discredit their claim of being valid ESL teachers. The narratives suggest that the teachers are aware of the nativist discourses that position them as Other, but also strongly point to the following findings: (a) The participants feel that they are effective teachers despite initial nonacceptance by their students and colleagues and despite being constantly judged against the native speaker norm; and (b) they build effective pedagogies on their ascribed nonnative status and, in fact, they are more effective in the classroom when they build their pedagogies on their nonnative identities, rather than when they try to follow the native speaker norm. I now look at some of the successful classroom strategies in which the teachers foreground their differences.

Build community. One such pedagogical strategy common to the teachers is that they build community with their students on the basis of their commonalities and thus provide the social conditions identified by Peirce (1993) as conducive to language learning. Jane says this of her bilingual Mandarin-English class:

> Jane: Bilingual, they are from my culture, so they perceive me as a bridge between the two worlds. You feel you are highly appreciated. You bring the two worlds together.

Jane feels successful in the bilingual class primarily because her students and she share a common language, culture, and ethnicity.

Tang's (1997) study of Cantonese-speaking teachers teaching English in Hong Kong offers insight into the strengths of bilingual teachers who share the L1 of their students, and hence it is relevant to bilingual ESL programs in any country. The teachers in Tang's study reported that having a common mother tongue is a useful instructional tool in teacher-student interaction. Some respondents reported also that their experiences as ESL learners gave them a privileged understanding of the problems and weaknesses of their students. Tang adds that nonnative teachers can empathize with their learners and thus attend to their errors, especially those that are due to transfer from their L1. Tang's findings concur with Widdowson's (1994) view that nonnative teachers can be more effective than native teachers in certain situations.

In the context of Canada, a study of Settlement ESL programs for adult immigrants in Ontario shows that 14% of ESL teachers are fluent in "Chinese," and that 23% of ESL students in Ontario first learned to speak "Chinese" (Power Analysis, 1998). Assuming that many of these adults were at some time in bilingual ESL programs, it could be argued that Jane's feelings of success are probably common among teachers of bilingual ESL programs for ethnic Chinese students.

Like Jane, Dina works hard at fostering community with her students. As she is multilingual and familiar with a number of cultures, she uses these qualities to establish an environment conducive to language learning:

Dina: They loved [being in my class] because they could converse with me in their own language, so if there was a problem, they would come to me, and I could understand their culture. It was as if I was an ally to them, rather than an enemy.

She describes a particular class where her students were Iranians, ethnic Chinese people from Hong Kong, and Koreans, and where she felt particularly successful:

Dina: And since I knew their culture and religion and customs, it was, "Oh, yes, you understand what I'm talking about. How important Ramadan is, how important Eid and Nauruz are."

One of Dina's successful pedagogical strategies for creating community with her students is to show her familiarity and acceptance of their institutions—many of which are not validated by White Canada. Jane says that she is successful in the bilingual class because she shares a common language, culture, and ethnicity with her students. While Dina does not share the languages of all her students, she and her students have many commonalities.

Like Jane and Dina, Fayza forges community with her students, but she builds on the shared experience of being nonnative and immigrant. She articulates the pressures felt by some new immigrants to assimilate:

Fayza: The students, they come here, they are in a hurry, they want to be recognized and integrated, and part of this society, and that's why they want to destroy their identity completely, their values, and they want to identify with this native completely. Some of them even imitate their way of talking, the way they dress, even if it doesn't suit them. But they *want* to be Canadian.

It appears, then, that as Fayza makes connections between language and culture, she recognizes also the self-hatred that her students suffer from, a self-hatred she recognizes because she experienced it as a new immigrant. She tells her students that as a new immigrant and as an ESL student she too wanted to erase her roots, and she draws on her experience to caution them that "people respect you more when you respect yourself."

Fayza: But they [students] have to know also that they have to keep their identity. When you come to Canada, it doesn't mean that you have to be Canadian, that you have to have everything like a born Canadian. Like you have to want his values, his traditions, his language, everything. You have to keep your identity. Identity is very important. You have also to realize that your roots and traditions and values are important.

Disrupt native speaker myths of birth, intuition. The teachers build their pedagogies on an experience that is associated with being nonnative speakers—the experience of having been ESL learners—and this experience provides them with a privileged understanding of the problems and weaknesses their students face in learning English (see Tang, 1997). Tasneem's experience of Otherness in a number of sites has made her mindful of the negative messages that her students are receiving about their social identities as ESL learners. She describes how she is an agent in her students' empowerment:

Tasneem: Some of my Chinese students say that English is very difficult, and I tell them: You can learn it. I learned it. I wasn't born speaking English. My mother doesn't speak English. We learned English in school.

Tasneem is stressing two related points: First, that English is not her mother tongue, and second, that English can be learned, thus challenging the discourse that you have to be born in an English-speaking family and that English has to be your mother's or father's L1 in order to know English well. She is telling her students: Don't give up. I did it, and so can you—much-needed words of encouragement for adult students who often feel that learning English well is an impossible goal. Clearly, Tasneem has embraced a nonnative position as one from which she can effectively negotiate her teaching.

Use anti-racist materials. Another way these teachers demythologize the native speaker is with the materials that they bring into the classroom. Since immigrants have to face the stereotype of what is a valid and acceptable accent, and as the Settlement ESL classroom uses native speaker accents as the norm, Dina focuses on disrupting the stereotype of what accent a teacher or a person of authority should have. In place of commercial audiotapes that use what I've termed "White" accents, she often makes her own tapes that include a variety of voices, including her own. In this way, she disrupts her students' thinking that their minority teacher's accent is different from the accents they hear on the commercial tapes and thus perceive as authoritative.

According to Jane, her students' understanding of a Canadian accent is: "The English they hear on TV, the English they hear around them they recognize as Canadian." Like Dina, Jane self-consciously uses tapes with a variety of accents, thus encouraging her students to rethink their understanding of a Canadian accent to include those voices and those accents that they do not hear on mainstream television and radio.

The experience of being a linguistic and racial Other, both inside and outside ESL, has also sensitized Arun to interracial and interethnic tensions among her students, and she addresses these tensions in a nonthreatening way. Among the materials that she has found effective in addressing and diffusing these tensions is a video called *Eye of the Beholder* (Reynolds, 1955), in which all four witnesses to a death describe the incident differently. Arun uses this video to discuss how human beings turn our prejudiced perceptions into "facts." To explain this process, she gives the hypothetical example of a woman having four or five negative experiences with a few Vietnamese people, leading her to attribute these negative qualities to all Vietnamese people.

Nuzhat: Are you doing this only to address students' racism against other students or is this also your way of dealing with what's happening to you [that is, not being accepted as a good English teacher]?

Arun: Exactly. It serves my purpose too…[Prejudices] have roots…There are historical reasons for dislikes [of a particular ethnic group]. After these exercises, my students learn how to respect everybody. That's what I want them to do before learning English—to have respect for everyone in the class.

In sum, Dina, Jane, and Arun draw on materials that challenge the belief that the White native speaker is the only valid ESL teacher.

Prepare effective lessons. It was not a surprise when all the participants said that they believe teachers should have extensive training, more than a two- to three-month course for Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL). It, therefore, did not surprise me that they had all spent a great amount of time upgrading their skills in teacher training institutes. All eight teachers talked about how hard they work to produce good, effective lessons. This message came through most poignantly and clearly in Fayza's interview, for she explained *why* she had to work so hard:

Fayza: I was so conscientious. When you become a teacher, and it's not your native language, after all, it's your second language so you become so conscientious, and you want to do your best to compensate or to make up for that or to make them feel that they have achieved their goal somehow. You don't want to disappoint your students, right? Then you get a good feedback sometime.

Nuzhat: You seem like a very hard working and conscientious person. Would you have done the same [gone to such pains] if you were teaching, say, Arabic? Or was it because you were teaching English and you felt that somehow you had to?

Fayza: Yes, I would have done probably the same if I were teaching Arabic. But in a more relaxed [way]. No doubt about it, it's a challenge, teaching English, because you have to know more about the culture. No matter how long you have learned the language, no matter how long you have been using the language, still you have to be aware of all aspects of the language. But with your own native language, sometimes you take it for granted.

I asked Fayza if her students ever asked the supervisor for a native speaker teacher.

Fayza: Yes. True. But eventually not so many of them do that. These are adult students, and they are looking for a good teacher to help them with their language difficulties. They soon realize that it's not just the colour of the skin [that they should go by]. Is she a good teacher? That is the bottom line. Your reputation gets around. If you are a dedicated teacher and you are doing a good job, then the word gets around and then there will be no problem.

The many hours of hard work that Fayza put in to overcome her perceived deficiency helped to make her a popular and successful teacher. Although the belief that teachers have to compensate for not being native speakers might be problematic, it is common among nonnative teachers (see, for example, Kamhi-Stein, 1999) because of the unrealistic—written or unwritten—goal of many ESL and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) programs worldwide that students should learn to speak like native speakers (see Kachru, 1990a; Sridhar, 1994).

A Pedagogy of Empowerment

The participants in my study have opened up possibilities for their students, for nonnative teachers, and for all those involved in ESL by showing that although native speakers are privileged by our profession, nonnative speakers can also lay valid claim to full competency in English. They also show that good pedagogy is not the province of the native speaker but is dependent on learning the craft or skill of teaching ESL. These are big steps toward the empowerment of nonnative speakers, both students and teachers, for, as Widdowson (1994) has pointed out, the association of the native speaker with ownership of English and good pedagogy is a dominant discourse of ELT.

What do the participants' pedagogical strategies imply for decolonizing the ESL classroom? Here I turn to Simon (1992), who distinguishes between "pedagogy" and "teaching" (p. 56). According to Simon, "When we teach, we are always implicated in the construction of a horizon of possibility for ourselves, our students, and our communities...To propose a pedagogy is to propose a political vision" (pp. 56-57). Simon emphasizes that we teachers need to concern ourselves with the enhancement of human possibility whereby we encourage our students to "envisage versions of a world that is `not yet'—in order to be able to alter the grounds upon which life is lived" (p. 57). By disrupting dominant stereotypes of who can claim full competency in English and by showing that nonnative speakers are effective teachers, my participants are engaging in a transformative critique of their own lives and of the lives of their adult learners. These teachers' nonnative pedagogies also have implications for ELT.

Implications for English Language Teaching

As noted above, the data indicate that, to varying degrees, the teachers do not use the native speaker as their model; rather, they build effective pedagogies based on their difference and on their ascribed nonnative speaker status. But while the teachers try to decolonize the classroom, the extent to which they can transform ESL is limited by the confines of their profession. Although the native speaker norm is being questioned by linguists (e.g., Braine, 1999; Nayar, 1994), many ESL and EFL programs worldwide continue to have as a goal that students learn to speak like native speakers (Kachru, 1990a; Sridhar, 1994). In this section I will look at the ramifications of my study for our profession. First I will address the responsibilities of professional organizations in ELT and then suggest a reassessment of teacher training programs that would result in a revision of settlement ESL programs.

Responsibilities of the Professional Organizations

One term that is "overdue for compulsory retirement" in linguistics, according to Christophersen (1988) is "'native'" as used in phrases like "'native language'" and "'native speaker'" (p. 15). Christophersen suggests also redefining the terms "first language" and "mother tongue" on the basis that they are misleading and confusing. A person's mother tongue may or may not be their mother's tongue, nor is a person's L1 always that which they learned first, because first can mean either the language the person learned first or the language that is first in importance. Cheshire (1991) and Ferguson (1992) have made similar arguments.

The narratives of the participants in my study indicate that such a reconceptualization of these concepts is indeed long overdue because the native speaker model is not a pedagogically sound principle in all contexts. For example, in many ESL programs worldwide the native speaker norm is frequently used when teaching higher level classes, the rationale being that students want to learn idiomatically appropriate language and to appreciate the cultural connotations of the language (see Phillipson, 1992). But according to Phillipson (1992), teachers who are nonnative speakers can acquire this competence through teacher training.

My position in this paper has been that the native speaker-nonnative speaker division is not solely based on proficiency and that many nonnative speakers are fully proficient in English. In addition, the native speaker model divides the profession according to a caste system and should therefore be eliminated (Kachru, 1990b; Pennycook, 1992; Phillipson, 1992). Organizations like the American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), and TESOL affiliates, should therefore actively dismantle the native speaker-nonnative speaker dichotomy.

Such an initiative, as Widdowson (1994) has recommended, should involve an inquiry into the craft of teaching ESL and EFL, since, as the participants have shown, teaching English well is not a racial or biological quality but a craft, a skill that has to be learned. Phillipson (1992) makes a similar point when he asserts that teachers are made rather than born and that "the untrained or unqualified native speaker is potentially a menace" (p. 195). This inquiry should address the interlinked issue of World Englishes. English has evolved away from its original base of Inner Circle societies and has become indigenized in a number of postcolonial countries. Historically, native speakers have decided whether a variety of English is valid. However, as Kachru (1992) and Sridhar and Sridhar (1992), among others, have argued, the rules used to decide on the validity of a particular variety of nonnative English are culturally and linguistically biased. Kachru (1992) adds that native speakers of mother English define any deviation from mother English in the indigenized varieties of English as not a difference but an error, for the norm that they use is that of English as used in native contexts.

What then can TESOL or other professional organizations do to validate the different varieties of English that exist outside Inner Circle countries? Quirk (1990) has dismissed any attempts at acceptance of these new varieties of English as "liberation linguistics." His stand continues to be that standard British English should be the norm internationally. Kachru (1991) considers Quirk's insistence to be unrealistic and misguided as it ignores the reality of World Englishes. Therefore, Kachru suggests a dialogue on the issue of international standardization. Such a dialogue is much needed now so that ESL and EFL programs worldwide can have a clearer direction in terms of which variety of English is the best model for a particular context.

Implications for Teacher Preparation

Kamhi-Stein (1999) notes that the messages of what a nonnative teacher cannot do stand in the way of nonnative speakers realizing their full potential, causing them to limit their career choices. Some of her teacher-trainees tell her that since they speak what they call "'a deficient variety of English,' they are qualified only to play the role of assistants of native English-speaking teachers" (p. 149). One of the consequences of this international hegemony of the native speaker is that nonnative speakers may see themselves as speakers of indigenized varieties of English and hence self-impose limits on their aspirations. As the discourses of the native speaker appear to be particularly disempowering for new teachers, I suggest that a curriculum that attempts to overcome these potentially disempowering discourses in teacher education programs is a meaningful first step towards dismantling the native-nonnative speaker dichotomy.

I now make suggestions for training new teachers, both native speakers and nonnative speakers, that will encourage them to explore new models and new pedagogies. I need to point out that the participants in my study are not new to this profession, that as teacher-trainees and as new teachers they might have used the native speaker model because it is the model actively promoted by TESL programs, and that they have had to create and develop their own nonnative pedagogies in order to be effective teachers. Although I have termed their pedagogies "nonnative," I wish to emphasize that both native and nonnative teachers can learn from these pedagogies as they aim to eliminate the native-nonnative speaker dichotomy.

Sanaoui's (1997) *Directory of ESL Teacher Preparation Programs in Ontario* outlines the curriculum of programs in Ontario, and it is clear that by and large they focus narrowly on second language acquisition, teaching methods, and linguistics, without placing these fields in their sociopolitical context. More recently, some of the TESL programs in the U.S. have begun to address sociopolitical issues (Tollefson, 1995). However, there appears to be little acknowledgment of the existence, much less validity, of the international varieties of English, nor is there questioning of concepts such as first language, mother tongue, and native speaker. Thus, in many ways TESL programs in both Canada and the U.S. are helping to maintain the status quo. My proposal encourages trainees not to privilege the native speaker given that (a) the native speaker construct does not have a sound linguistic basis (and hence a pedagogy based on this norm is not always effective), and (b) the native speaker model is a way of "Othering" those seen as nonnative to English and nonnative to the nation. Rather than representing effective practices, pedagogies that make the native speaker the norm are promoting an unequal division between White First World teachers and teachers who come from the rest of the world. This non-linguistic underpinning of the native speaker construct has to be made transparent in TESL programs so that both native and nonnative teachers can make informed choices about what and how to teach.

I further suggest that the discourse of "empowerment"—through the acquisition of a Canadian, British, or American accent—is problematic. Lippi-Green (1997) argues that it is not possible for adults to eliminate their accent, and that even if adult immigrants could change their accents, the intersection of race, gender, class, and Third World status would be factors in their continuing disempowerment. Goldstein (1999) therefore questions the value of emphasizing a certain accent and pronunciation in ESL. In addition, such accent-reduction discourses of empowerment for students are disempowering for their nonnative teachers who may have one of the stigmatized accents that students are being encouraged to unlearn in order to succeed. Hence, both good pedagogy and social justice demand that TESL programs in Canada, the U.S., and elsewhere rethink this emphasis on native speaker accents.

I have so far addressed the need for all teacher trainees to question the native speaker model and explore new pedagogies. Now I will look at how TESL programs can equip the nonnative trainees for the special challenges that they will face in this profession. Kamhi-Stein (1999) makes a strong case for integrating instruction on issues related to nonnative speakers in TESL preparation programs. She further argues that such programs should allow future teachers to develop an understanding of their assets, beliefs, and values, and should also promote improvement of the teacher-trainees' competencies. In such an approach, the teacher preparation curriculum provides teacher-trainees with many opportunities to examine their nonnative speaker status in relation to theories of language acquisition, methodology, and curriculum design. It also allows them to examine the cultural and social factors affecting second language development. Such a curriculum would be a meaningful attempt to counter discourses in ELT that promote the notion that the native speaker is the best model.

Conclusion

In this paper I have argued that the native speaker is a linguistic manifestation of nativist discourses that position visible minority immigrant women as being nonnative to Canada or the U.S. and thus, as being nonnative speakers of English. I have also argued that native speakers are imagined as having Inner Circle accents, and that accents, like race, are socially organized, are a linguistic manifestation of nativism, and constitute a new and effective form of racism. I have indicated that minority teachers are aware of their positioning as nonnative, as the Other of ESL, and that they often draw on their experience of otherness to build successful pedagogies and to disrupt native speaker mythologies. I have then looked at some of the implications of my study for the teaching of English as a second or foreign language worldwide; more specifically I have recommended that professional organizations should actively work towards dismantling the native-nonnative speaker dichotomy and reconceptualizing the native speaker norm. I have also recommended that teacher education programs make transparent the nonlinguistic underpinnings of the native speaker construct so that both native and nonnative teachers can make informed pedagogical choices.

I conclude on an optimistic note. While the pedagogies employed by the participants in the study were developed in the context of Settlement ESL programs in Toronto, the teachers' narratives of resisting native speaker and nativist discourses and of setting up a counter-discursive paradigm in their ESL classrooms foreground strategies that can be employed by nonnative teachers in any classroom situation. These narratives tell a larger tale than ESL: By challenging the notion that the native speaker of English is the only valid teacher of English, the teachers are not only decolonizing ESL and decolonizing English, but they are also decolonizing our collective imagination.

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Endnotes

[1] There is no one Pakistani accent. Accents in Pakistan, as in Canada, are on a continuum. I am referring to how my accent indicates that I did not grow up in Canada and the implications of this fact.

[2] "Nativism" refers to the belief that the national culture is embodied in certain groups of people who were born in that country. It further refers to the belief that these native-born individuals are native speakers and that one born outside that country to parents speaking another language cannot attain native-speaker status.

[3] I do not use the term "Third World" unproblematically. Said (1994) has pointed out that the binary divisions of Third World-First World signify dominated and dominant. My use of these binaries in this article is an attempt to make transparent the continuing power inequalities between the two spheres that make it possible for the First World to produce and maintain such dichotomies as native-nonnative speaker. In addition, I am thus indicating that discourses of nativism continue to construct non-White immigrant women living in Canada as Third World inhabitants, signaled by the status of nonnative speaker that is ascribed to them.

[4] Participants granted me permission to use data from their interviews in this study. I changed their names to protect their identities.

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The
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Journal

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Autonomy and Collaboration in Teacher Education: Journal Sharing Among Native and Nonnative English-Speaking Teachers

■ **This article presents a successful case of collaborative teacher development that draws on the diverse backgrounds of emerging teachers, including their native languages. Specifically, the article focuses on the use of electronic dialogue journals as a way of facilitating autonomy and collaboration in teacher education. The roles of teacher educators in facilitating greater autonomy and collaborative relationships between native and nonnative English-speaking teachers are also discussed.**

The issue of nonnative English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) has attracted much scholarly and professional attention in the last few years. In 1998, a caucus was established in the organization Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in order to address through research and networking various issues related to NNESTs. The California/Nevada affiliate CATESOL followed in December 1999 by creating an interest group devoted to the issues of nonnative language educators. Several articles and books that specifically address these issues have been published (e.g., Braine, 1999; Kamhi-Stein, Lee, & Lee, 1999; Liu, 1999; A. Matsuda, 1997; P. K. Matsuda, 1999/2000). This issue of *The CATESOL Journal*—the special issue on nonnative English-speaking professionals—adds to the growing body of literature. While it is a recent phenomenon, the growth of interest in this topic is not surprising because the majority of English teachers in the world are nonnative speakers of the language.

Many, if not most, teacher education programs in English-dominant countries enroll both native and nonnative speakers who are pre-service or in-service teachers. In these contexts, collaboration between NNESTs and native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) is not only desirable but may even be necessary. From the perspective of teacher educators, collaboration is desirable because it can contribute to the creation of a community in which teachers learn from their differences. In such a learning community, the professional, cultural, and linguistic diversity that teachers bring with them becomes an asset rather than a liability. From the perspective of pre-service and in-service teachers, collaborative teacher development not only makes their learning experience more positive and productive but also helps them develop the ability to work collaboratively, which may be a necessity in their future careers. After graduation, NNESTs may stay in an English-dominant country or move to countries other than their own and begin careers as English teachers. Similarly, many opportunities are available for NESTs who are interested in teaching English in countries where English is not the dominant language. In any of these teaching options, all of which are common in the TESOL profession, one is likely to be working with colleagues who have linguistic, cultural, and academic backgrounds that differ from one's own. Consequently, the ability to establish good rapport and to collaborate well with a diverse group of teachers and administrators is essential for building a successful career and for providing effective instruction for one's students.

In order to create such a learning environment, we argue for a collaborative model of native and nonnative English-speaking teacher development (P. K. Matsuda, 1999/2000). Traditionally, the evaluation of teacher development has tended to be based on the "deficit model," in which teachers are individually evaluated only in terms of qualifications they have (competence) and those that they do not have (deficits). For instance, some nonnative speakers (NNSs) may be viewed as lacking experiences in certain English genres, while some native speakers (NSs) may be viewed as lacking the metalinguistic awareness of the English language. Based on *either-or* logic, NESTs and NNESTs in this model are viewed as discrete (NESTs or NNESTs) or competitive (NESTs versus NNESTs).

In contrast, in the collaborative model of teacher development, which is driven by *both-and* logic, "teachers see themselves as members of a collaborative community in which they share their special strengths to help each other out" (P. K. Matsuda, 1999/2000, p. 10). Because this model focuses on the learning community created by teachers and on the development of the teachers as a group, learning takes place through sharing stories and adopting, adapting, and learning from others' "approaches and strategies that are informed by differing linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds" (p. 10). In other words, this model strives for integration (NESTs and NNESTs), cooperation (mutual sharing), and addition (NEST strengths plus NNEST strengths), all of which can lead to the type of collaboration that increases the effectiveness of teacher education programs.

In this article, we describe an example of such collaboration between NESTs and NNESTs. Specifically, we show how the use of on-line journal sharing maximized each teacher's strengths and encouraged teachers to learn from the diversity in the group—including, but not limited to, linguistic diversity.

Journals in Teacher Education

In recent years, the use of journals has gained popularity in teacher education programs. It has been adopted by many teacher educators as a way to monitor new teachers' progress and to provide formative responses (Bailey, 1990; Brinton, Holten, & Goodwin, 1993; Cole, Raffier, Rogan, & Schleisher, 1998; Dong, 1997; Porter, Goldstein, Leatherman, & Conrad, 1990; Thornbury, 1991). Some researchers have also used journal entries as a source of data to gain insights into the process of teacher development and to evaluate teacher education programs. Murphy-O'Dwyer (1985), in an analysis of the reflective journals of pre-service teachers in a two-week teacher education course, identified issues that concerned the teachers, including group dynamics, administrative constraints, personal variables, and presentation and content of a lesson. Similarly, Numrich (1996), in her analysis of the journals of novice English as a second language teachers, was able to identify such concerns as preoccupation with teaching behavior, transfer and rejection of the teachers' own second language (L2) learning experience, and unexpected discoveries about effective teaching and teaching frustrations (see also Brinton & Holten, 1989). Furthermore, as Dong (1997) suggests, the reflective journal can help teacher educators re-evaluate and redefine the needs of teacher education programs:

> One of the focuses in my methods course...is on content-area instruction. However, students' responses from their field work reveal that content-oriented ESL instruction was not often practiced in real teaching because of the departmentalization of content teachers at high schools and the isolation of ESL teachers. Peer responses made me realize that interdisciplinary collaboration and access to resources are critical to making this happen. (p. 31)

Although responses to the use of journals in teacher education have been mostly positive and enthusiastic, some limitations and concerns have been identified. The lack of motivation among teachers, for example, is one of the potential problems in the use of journals. Teachers may not fully understand the benefit of keeping reflective journals in their professional development because the results of critical reflection are not always tangible. Teachers may also feel that the task of keeping a journal is not worth including in their already busy schedule. This is an important consideration, especially when the journal writing task is imposed by the teacher educator, because as Barkhuizen (1995) points out, teachers may perceive the purpose of the journal differently or even become suspicious of the intent of the teacher educator.

Another possible problem is appropriation, which occurs when the teacher's goals in writing journals are controlled by the teacher educator's goals for using the journals. Considering the teacher educator as the primary audience, teachers may choose to write what they think will please this person. Even when the teacher educator does not respond to the text, the sheer presence of the authority figure—however unthreatening—may make teachers overly self-conscious and sometimes defensive, influencing how they perceive and use the journal (Jarvis, 1992) and can undermine the whole purpose of using the journal. Furthermore, the teacher educator's use of journals as a data source for their own research may also raise ethical questions (Barkhuizen, 1995).

The use of journals may also isolate members of the class when it is limited to the "dialogue" between the teacher educator and individual teachers (see, however, Cole et al. [1998] and Dong [1997] for examples of interactive uses of journals). While this type of interaction allows the teacher educator to focus on the specific needs of each teacher and thus may sometimes be useful for teachers with little or no experience, it may also cause the teachers to depend too much on the teacher educator for directions. Furthermore, too much focus on the individual may promote competition at the expense of cooperation among teachers. As a result, unique perspectives that teachers from diverse backgrounds bring to the group may remain untapped.

Although these limitations do exist, they are not "insurmountable" (Barkhuizen, 1995, p. 33). In our journal sharing described below, we attempted to overcome these limitations.

Description of the Context

Participants in the on-line journal project discussed in this article were four graduate teaching assistants, including both authors, who were teaching sections of first-year composition designated for ESL students (ENGL 101I) in Fall 1996. Since this was our first time to teach ESL sections of this course, we were enrolled in a practicum course in teaching ESL writing, which involved a weekly one-hour group meeting with the mentor.

The four of us came from diverse backgrounds and had diverse experiences and interests. Betty, a native of Oklahoma, was a second-year master of arts student in Linguistics and ESL and was engaged in an MA thesis research project on language and gender.[1] Her teaching career had begun the previous year when she started teaching English 101 and 102—mainstream sections of introductory composition courses. In the fall of 1996 she was teaching a section of 101 along with a section of 101I. Jack, originally from Nebraska, was in his second year in an MA program in rhetoric and composition. Like Betty, he had taught mainstream composition the previous school year. Aya, a native of Japan, was also a second-year MA student, specializing in Linguistics and ESL. Her prior teaching experience included teaching English as a foreign language to secondary students in Japan and teaching mainstream introductory composition. Paul, also from Japan, was specializing in ESL composition as a second-year doctoral student in rhetoric and composition. He had worked as a tutor both as an undergraduate and as a master's student and had taught mainstream composition the previous year.

Our journal project was carried out in conjunction with this practicum although it was independent of the course requirements. The original goal of our journal sharing project was to critically reflect on our own teaching practices and to relate our previous teaching experience to the knowledge of ESL and composition theory in our new instructional context—the first-year ESL composition course. We did not specify how often we needed to post our journal entries, but two to seven (about four on average) entries were written and exchanged each week.

As was the case in Cole et al. (1998), our reflective journal project was completely self-initiated. Some of us were in the process of developing proposals for a conference when we received the teaching assignment for the following semester. We decided to collaborate and met then, during the semester preceding the assignment, to plan our project. At this first meeting we chose reflective journal sharing as a way to facilitate our collaboration. Although we received encouragement and support from our mentor, he neither required nor evaluated this project in any fashion; the four of us took the initiative to conceive and implement it. In fact, to prevent the possibility of appropriation, our mentor voluntarily refrained from reading our journals, allowing the four of us to express our views and discuss concerns without the fear of being judged.

We shared our journal entries and responded to each other, which helped to create a supportive and collaborative network among the four of us. This defining feature of our project also transformed the nature of the reflective journal itself—the reflection was no longer at the level of each person but became a collective endeavor. We used the journal not only for personal reflections but also for sharing ideas and stories. By doing so, we were able to develop a body of local knowledge, or what North (1987) has called "practitioner's lore" (p. 23)—a body of practical knowledge that arises from the network of teachers.

Another important feature of our journal-sharing project was the use of e-mail, which, as Kamhi-Stein (2000) has also pointed out, can be a useful tool to facilitate the exchange of insights. We initially exchanged hard-copy versions of our journals until some of us expressed interest in using e-mail as a vehicle for the exchange. The use of e-mail made our journals more interactive because we were able to share our thoughts and to respond to each other more frequently. Using e-mail also facilitated the preservation of "significant or important events for the purpose of later reflection" (Richards, 1990, p. 10).

In addition, this project included not only making and sharing journal entries but also analyzing them as a group. Several times during and after the semester we printed out the journals and analyzed them collectively, which added another layer to our critical reflections. In the process, we also negotiated what to discuss in our future journals and how to respond to each other. The ongoing as well as retrospective analyses helped us reflect critically on our own teaching practices from multiple perspectives.

Our Journal Entries

Our journal entries addressed a wide range of issues in teaching ESL writing because we intentionally left the focus of the journal open and flexible at the beginning. Most of our entries, however, reflected the following themes: sharing teaching ideas and information, discussing issues in L2 writing, reflecting on one's own development and practices as a teacher, and providing moral support.

Sharing Teaching Ideas and Information

As we described earlier, we initially shared our journals off-line by leaving a copy in each other's mailboxes, and we did the same with handouts in order to exchange teaching ideas. When we decided to use e-mail, the exchange of teaching ideas became more than a mere sharing of "recipes" because we soon started to include reflections on how each task or activity worked in the classroom. Furthermore, we often adapted each other's ideas, used them in our own classes, and reported back how they went. For instance, Aya wrote:

> I've been trying to figure out how to deal with the concept of "writing as thinking" which was one of the central issues in my 101 & 102 last year. I would like to introduce it to my 101I students, too...However, my concern is that many of my students seem to be still at the stage of getting used to putting their ideas in English that makes sense, and making them think through writing "English" may be too much burden for them. I asked them to freewrite today in any language they like, but I'm not sure if I should or want to rely on their L1 [first language] all the time. (September 1, 1996)

Aya discussed this experience again in detail at the following weekly meeting, and described the freewriting activity in which she encouraged students to use their L1, if they so choose, to initiate thinking. A few days later, Jack responded:

> I stole Aya's idea for a first language freewrite, which seemed to go very well. Only one student (Luis, the near-native speaker) did not write for the full time. Because my class has two or more speakers of each first language, I did a first language group activity in which the groups evaluated each member's topics, and tried to advise on both topic selection and possible lines of development. The class seemed genuinely surprised that I was encouraging them to not speak English in an English class, and that I was not interested in looking at their work (even if I could read it). I must admit that I felt very peripheral to the class activity when all of the groups were working in their native languages. (September 5, 1996)

In addition, the on-line journal provided us with a convenient way of asking questions and of exchanging information about teaching related issues. Betty asked, for instance:

> Hey, Paul and Aya. Here's a question for you: What are your teachers like in Japan compared to here? Several of my students comment on their native teachers being very personal. Any thoughts on that? I'm thinking of the implications for us as teachers. My [international] students love it when I [divulge] personal info and talk to them about their families. (September 17, 1996)

In response to this question, Paul and Aya wrote:

> My teachers in Japan seemed much more impersonal than my teachers in the U.S. partly because of the class size (almost all high school classes had 40+ students). But that depends on how you deal with them—they were more personal with me because I always sat in the front row and went to their offices just to chat. Even then, teachers in Japan have a sense of distance that they have to maintain in order to keep their ethos as teachers. But I'm sure that's changing as well...(Paul, September 17, 1996)
>
> My teachers from elementary and secondary schools were more personal than many professors and instructors in college/univ., but I think it is more of the difference between higher education and non-higher (??) education than the cultural difference...(Aya, September 17, 1996)

Because we were trying out many activities for the first time, knowing how they worked in different contexts helped us examine the usefulness and effectiveness of those activities. Furthermore, the fact that our journal often functioned as a vehicle for generating teaching material provided a practical motivation to participate in the sharing of journal entries.

Discussing Issues in L2 Writing

While many of our discussions were related to day-to-day teaching practices, such as the ones discussed above, some of them developed into more general discussions of issues in L2 writing. For example, the issue of responding to students' texts often generated active discussion in our journal exchange and during the weekly meeting:

> I stopped several times in the process of responding to their papers, thinking that I was focusing too much on grammar...I am now wishing that I had a chance to give them feedback on the content and rhetorical features of their paper before I collected this version. I know both are important, but commenting on both grammar and rhetoric is probably too demanding for some students (and for me). Maybe I will start commenting on one or the other. For those who are strong in content and organization, I will provide minimum comment on these areas and provide extensive feedback on grammar and convention. For others who have problems in both "rhetoric" and "syntax" (to use Barbara Kroll's [1990] distinction), I will focus on rhetorical features. (Paul, September 29, 1996)

This type of discussion helped us connect theory and pedagogy—to apply insights from our readings, off-line discussions, and the mentor's advice to our teaching practices—because we not only shared anecdotes but also tried to make references to readings and research.

The issue of nonnative English-speaking professionals was also an important topic of discussion in our exchange. We shared our personal experiences, as the following comment from Aya describes:

> I personally think both NS [native speakers] and NNS [nonnative speakers] have some good things to offer to our students. There are probably certain things that I can do and NS can't, or I cannot do but NS can—or what I can/can't do and other NNS can't/can. So I do hope my students get someone other than me for 102I and learn something different from you guys...To tell you the truth, being NNS does not have as much advantage as I first thought. And not as much disadvantage either. Or they are about the same so they cancel out. It may appear one way or the other (good or bad) on the first couple of days, but students learn to see beyond my dark hair and exotic name...(September 20, 1996)

In response to this comment, Betty provided her assessment of American students' attitudes toward international teaching assistants as well as her own view on the issue:

> I think that the attitudes reflect both an acceptance and a reluctance to appear racist. I think that American undergrads are quicker to voice their opinion than nonnative undergrads. I think that native undergrads are more hostile to nonnative teachers—and not just of English. I have had several students write about it in their journals in the past year. Of course they don't realize that I am majoring in ESL...I always turn to a more experienced teacher whenever I have questions about teaching. So naturally, I have turned to Paul, Aya, Mike T. and others. I know for a fact that Paul knows more stuff about teaching strategies—not to mention the English language—than I do. Why would I go to someone with less experience than me just because they were L1 speakers? (September 24, 1996)

This topic, as easily imagined, was a sensitive one. Although most of the discussion addressed the native and nonnative English speaker issue in general terms, we were, in a way, talking about ourselves. However, this explicit discussion was crucial in establishing our collaborative relationship because it helped us realize the complexity of this issue as well as the richness of our diverse backgrounds that we brought to the group.

Reflecting on Our Own Development and Teaching Practices

In addition to sharing teaching ideas and discussing issues specific to ESL writing instruction, we often shared our reflections on our own strengths and weaknesses as teachers. For example Aya wrote:

> As you have probably noticed by now, I do expect a lot from my students; not so much in the quality of their work, because I know they are to improve it in this class, but trying their best, doing work on time, coming to class and participating, and that kind of stuff. When my students don't meet those expectations, I get frustrated with my students for not "fulfilling their responsibilities" and also with myself for not being able to communicate my expectation or why it's important to do the work on time. Am I expecting too much from my students? Am I not "threatening" enough? (September 24, 1996)

To this message, Betty responded:

> This is a specific response to Aya's concern about whether she is "threatening" enough or not. My students that are not doing their part have begun to do their part because their grades reflect their inactivity. They have all begun to sit up and participate. I sometimes have to [coerce] them into participating, but they are doing better. (September 25, 1996)

We did not respond as directly to these entries about our teaching as we did to other types of entries, but they still created a strong sense of sharing and interaction. Some of us felt that having someone to talk to about our own progress and frustrations was helpful in itself. Reading stories of other teachers' struggles and development also helped us get to know each other better and build a tighter and friendlier learning community.

Providing Moral Support

Finally, there were some "pep talk" entries that provided moral support. All exchanges contributed to our group morale by strengthening our collaborative network, but some remarks specifically expressed our trust in this group. For example, Betty wrote:

> I just want you guys to know that I think our mentor group is extremely productive and that we all work together very well. We have a group dynamic that is unsurpassed I'm sure in other groups. I am excited about sticking together next semester. (September 24, 1996)

What Happened Next

In the following semester, the four of us stuck together to some extent as Betty had hoped. All of us taught ENGL 102I, an ESL section of the second course in the introductory composition sequence, and we continued to exchange our journals. The exchange was less frequent, however, because we were all using very different syllabi, making the exchange of teaching ideas somewhat difficult. We probably had also gained some confidence as ESL writing teachers and did not need the same level of support we had needed the previous semester. Nonetheless, we maintained the on-line journals as a vehicle for interaction and continued more informal exchanges such as conversation in our offices.

At the same time, our collaboration went beyond the realm of teaching into the realm of scholarship. From this project, each of us found and developed research topics such as (a) how our differing backgrounds affected our views and practices as teachers, (b) how ESL students' perceived and reacted to NESTs and NNESTs, (c) how group dynamics may influence the process of collaboration and of mentoring, and (d) how teachers may develop professionally through collaboration. We even presented papers collaboratively at two conferences, and some of us are continuing to explore the research interests we developed through this project.

Conclusion

Just like any project, our on-line journal-sharing project was not without problems. We began participating in this project with different assumptions and expectations; and did not initially foresee the need to articulate them. For example, at our first collective analysis meeting, we found out that one of us had not read the others' entries while the rest of us had been reading and responding to each other. We realized that we had to decide how interactive these journal entries could and should be. After much discussion, we decided to read and respond to the journals as they were distributed and to write our own entries regularly so that all four of us could benefit from the exchange. Setting the ground rules at the beginning of the project could have prevented such problems, although in our case the process of identifying assumptions and negotiating solutions provided an additional opportunity for collaboration that may have contributed to a stronger sense of community.

Despite these small glitches, the on-line journal-sharing project was collaborative, productive, and successful. Two factors that seem to have contributed to the success of this project were the autonomy of the participants and the opportunity they had to observe each other's growth. As described earlier, the teachers were autonomous in that the teacher educator refrained from participating. This gave us complete freedom and responsibility to shape the project. Thus, from the very beginning, we had to communicate with each other frequently and make group decisions regarding the journal sharing. In addition, other logistics of this teacher education program encouraged our individual autonomy. For instance, although we were asked to use the same syllabus, we were allowed to be flexible; we had much freedom in how we organized each lesson. With this flexibility came the need for a series of decisions that had to be made in a thoughtful yet timely manner, just as in any teaching context. For the four of us—novice teachers who were not always confident about their decisions—e-mail was a convenient way to share our plans and get quick feedback, and the journal-sharing project provided such an arena for this exchange. In other words, the teacher autonomy that was allowed in the structure of the teacher-education program created the need for networking and collaboration among teachers.

This flexibility also allowed us to explore ways to use our strengths and develop our own teaching styles, which leads to another characteristic of this project—it provided opportunities to see others grow as teachers. The on-line journal allowed us to have an informal, candid, and spontaneous exchange of our stories about struggles and success. We witnessed how others develop their teaching styles using their unique strengths and expertise, and we gained a better understanding of why they teach the way they do. In other words, both the general structure of this teacher education program and this particular on-line journal project contributed to greater teacher autonomy, which encouraged us to be different, to appreciate our differences, and to learn from the differences.

Since our collaboration was completely self-initiated and autonomous, it may be difficult to replicate it in other contexts—unless a group of teachers happen to be reading this article and decide to start their own version of a collaborative journal-sharing project. However, teacher educators can facilitate autonomous and collaborative teacher development in a number of ways. For example, they can ask teachers to read articles on teacher reflection journals and collaboration (e.g., this article) prior to or at the beginning of the term and encourage them to consider how they might collaborate. Discussing the rationale and strategies for collaboration in teacher development in class or at professional development workshops may also be effective in introducing teachers to the idea of collaborative teacher development. Teacher educators can also encourage collaboration by creating an e-mail list exclusively for teachers and by encouraging them to think about how they might use it to suit their own needs. Although it may be disheartening for some teacher educators not to be able to monitor or evaluate some aspects of the teachers' progress, we believe that the benefit of autonomy outweighs its cost.

The collaborative approach to teacher development, we feel, is especially important in TESOL because TESOL professionals, no matter where they go, will encounter colleagues—as well as students—who come from a wide variety of backgrounds. The experience of collaborative development in the context of a teacher development program can encourage teachers to develop a collaborative learning community in their own classrooms and, in the long run, to continue their professional development by collaborating with their colleagues.

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Endnote

[1] While the authors use their own names in this report, Betty and Jack are pseudonyms for the other participants.

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The CATESOL Journal

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Collaboration Between Native and Nonnative English-Speaking Educators

Although most educators recognize the benefits of collaboration with other colleagues, many may not be aware of the numerous benefits attained by collaboration between native and nonnative-speaking educators. In this article, the authors discuss these benefits, beginning with a history of their collaborative relationship that began in graduate school and has continued for several years. They discuss both their individual differences and similarities that have contributed to their relationship and enhanced their understanding of their students, their ability to teach more effectively, and their professional lives. Lastly, the authors conclude with recommendations for how others can establish and maintain a lasting collaborative relationship.

A collaborative relationship is a partnership consciously entered into by the people involved, the team members. It is a relationship that is purposely pursued in order to achieve a common goal and to provide the team members with support. Saltiel (1998) defines collaboration as a partnership between two or more people who work together on a common goal and, together, accomplish and learn more than they could if they were working alone. Wildavshy (1986) states that the essence of the collaborative process is when "the participants make use of each other's talents to do what they either could not have done at all or as well alone" (p. 237). Baldwin and Austin (1995) contend that in order for a collaborative relationship to be successful, the team members must build their collaborative relationship on mutual trust, respect, and even affection.

In recent years, the advantages of collaboration among teachers have become evident in many contexts (Hargreaves, 1994; Little, 1990). Many educators have worked collaboratively on research projects, on books, on curriculum development, and in team teaching. Through such collaboration, these educators have not only accomplished more than they would have accomplished alone; they have also expanded their knowledge and honed their skills. There are, however, unique benefits when native English-speaking and nonnative English-speaking educators form a collaborative relationship. In this article, the co-authors describe the benefits that they (i.e., Luciana Carvalho de Oliveira, a nonnative English-speaking educator, and Sally Richardson, a native English-speaking educator) have gained from such a collaborative relationship. They also explain how and why their relationship benefited not only themselves but their students as well. Finally, they provide suggestions for how other educators might initiate and maintain such a collaborative relationship.

The Authors' Paths as Educators

Luciana was born and raised in Brazil, attending Brazilian schools from kindergarten through college. She started to study English as a foreign language (EFL) at the age of 12 and knew relatively early that she wanted to be an English teacher. She began her teaching career at a private school in Araraquara, São Paulo, in 1993, where she taught beginning, intermediate, and advanced EFL to children, adolescents, and adults. Luciana received her Bachelor of Arts (BA) degree and teaching credential in Languages, English and Portuguese, from the State University of São Paulo in January 1997. In the same year, she was admitted to the Master of Arts (MA) program in English, TESOL option, at California State University, Hayward (CSUH) where she subsequently earned her MA degree in 1999. Then, she was hired as a lecturer for the English Department at CSUH, teaching developmental and upper-division English composition to native and nonnative speakers for one year. Luciana is now a doctoral student in Education at the University of California, Davis.

In 1976, Sally received her BA degree in Art with an emphasis in Drawing and Painting from San Francisco State University, where she also earned her clear single subject teaching credential in art. She taught art and dance part time at the high school level for a year but left the field of education to operate her own graphics business for over ten years. In 1994, she decided to return to teaching and entered the MA program in English at CSUH with the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) option. While in the process of completing her MA degree, she also obtained the Cultural and Linguistic Academic Development (CLAD) Certificate. She earned her MA degree in 1999 and was hired as a lecturer at CSUH where she continues to teach developmental and upper-division English composition to native and nonnative English-speakers.

The History of the Collaborative Association

Luciana and Sally first met in 1997 when they were both graduate students at CSUH. New to the U.S., Luciana felt somewhat overwhelmed by the amount of reading she would have to do in a second language. Although Luciana had many questions about the language and the culture around her, at first she would not approach other graduate students because she felt uncertain about her abilities. This dilemma continued until she told herself that she needed to take advantage of the opportunity of being in the U.S. Luciana started to pay more attention to her peers in the graduate program and to consider which ones she felt comfortable interacting with. Sally, one such student; seemed open and talked to Luciana, asking her questions about her experiences in the U.S. In fact, she seemed to understand the difficulties a nonnative speaker new to the U.S. academic culture faces. After a while, Luciana started to ask Sally questions such as the importance of Thanksgiving in the U.S. and the meaning of some words her professors were using. Becoming friends with Sally played an important role in Luciana's development as a graduate student and in her future as a teacher of English as a second language (ESL). It was her friendship with Sally that led her to participate more actively in many classes and, therefore, to practice her language skills.

Sally was also drawn to Luciana. She found Luciana open and approachable and noticed that Luciana was an experienced EFL teacher. Although Sally had some teaching experience, it had been many years since she had taught. Moreover, she had never taught ESL or EFL, so she felt that working with someone who had experience in teaching English would greatly benefit her.

The manner in which Luciana and Sally's collaboration began is typical of how many collaborative partners begin such a relationship—they select each other almost by instinct (Sgroi & Saltiel, 1998). In other words, the two individuals sense a camaraderie or meeting of the minds, prompting them to select each other. Such collaborative relationships, according to Sgroi and Saltiel (1998), often become more than mere professional relationships. This was the case with Sally and Luciana's relationship while graduate students. It began as a friendship, then blossomed into a collaborative relationship, which in turn strengthened the friendship.

When Luciana and Sally started teaching at CSUH as part of their MA practicum, they felt that collaborating would benefit both of them. They therefore decided to meet twice a month during their six-month practicum to share ideas and materials, talk about their students and their academic needs, discuss their teaching experiences, and assist each other as needed. This beginning stage in their collaborative relationship was fundamental to their professional development because they were able to receive regular supportive feedback from each other. As Little (1987) states, teachers who work together are able to "…build program coherence, expand individual resources, and reduce individual burdens for planning and preparation" (p. 504). This is essentially what Sally and Luciana were accomplishing with their collaboration.

Richards and Lockhart (1994) state that critical reflection is essential as a basis for evaluation and decision-making and fosters a deeper understanding of teaching. During their practicum, Luciana and Sally reflected collaboratively by discussing the classes they taught, their students' reactions, and the strategies each used to present new content and vocabulary. After graduation, they continued this reflection by sharing ideas, handouts, and class materials and by giving each other supportive feedback. This collaboration also extended to conference presentations and the co-authorship of articles.

Making the Collaborative Relationship Work

How do Luciana and Sally make their collaborative relationship work? And why does it work so well for them? Although they share certain aspects, such as their teaching approaches, they also differ in many ways. In addition to their differences in background (e.g., education, culture, and native language), they also have different cognitive styles. Luciana is a linear/mathematical thinker while Sally, who comes from an art background, tends to be a global thinker. But it is precisely these differences that make their collaboration work. According to Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992), successful collaboration is built on recognizing and appreciating the different gifts, skills, and expertise of the other person. Furthermore, it is built on the abilities of the collaborators to appreciate their respective differences without feeling less competent themselves. These conditions are both met in Sally and Luciana's collaborative relationship. Because of their different perspectives and abilities, they often need to provide each other with detailed explanations, in the process arriving at a clearer understanding of their own opinions.

Riordan and da Costa (1996) refer to this process of discovering more of what one thinks while discussing ideas with a collaborative partner as "double-thinking." They add that this thinking out loud often leads to a refinement of ideas and an incorporation of new ideas. For example, Sally and Luciana had each designed a peer review activity. In Sally's activity, students had to summarize their peer reviewers' comments. In Luciana's activity, students had to write a revision plan based on the peer review. In one of their collaborative meetings, Luciana and Sally decided to combine their ideas into one activity. This is just one of the types of cumulative effects that collaboration fosters.

Another example of Luciana and Sally's process of collaboration is a reading-writing journal[1] assignment that they co-designed. The assignment required students to pick out key ideas from a chapter, summarize them, and respond to them. To facilitate the completion of the task, students were provided with a sample reading-writing journal entry handout with three columns labeled "key idea," "summary," and "response." Sally decided to provide the first example for the students. She chose an academic textbook chapter to analyze and picked the term "thesis statement" as her key idea. In the sample handout, she put "thesis statement" in the "key idea" column, in the "summary" column she summarized what a thesis statement is, and in the "response" column she supplied a response to the idea of thesis statement in the way she thought a student might respond. Sally shared the sample handout with Luciana who, as a nonnative speaker, said she thought that ESL students might become confused by the example. She explained to Sally that ESL students may not understand that "thesis statement" was only being used as an example of a key idea. Sally and Luciana revised the handout together and wrote a new example that would not be open to misinterpretation.

A further example of Luciana and Sally's collaboration is their process of preparing for presentations at professional conferences (e.g., CATESOL's regional and statewide conferences). First, they discuss ideas and then mull them over for a week or two. They next meet again to brainstorm, devise a plan, and discuss their individual roles for each aspect of the presentation. After that, they work individually on their tasks and meet at least three more times to put materials and handouts together and to rehearse. Central to Luciana and Sally's presentations is the spirit of cooperation that is the foundation of their collaborative relationship.

As in any relationship, collaborative academic relationships have certain dynamics in terms of decision making and roles. According to Baldwin and Austin (1995), these roles are negotiated and developed over time. Furthermore, Baldwin and Austin state that different relationships vary along a continuum in terms of the degree of flexibility in the partners' roles. At one end of the continuum are partnerships that initially set forth specific roles that remain the same regardless of the type of project. At the other end of the continuum are partnerships where the rules and roles of the relationship are unspoken and shift, depending on the type of project the collaborators are working on. Luciana and Sally's collaborative relationship falls in different places on this continuum, depending on the task. When collaborating on presentations, Sally is usually the note taker while Luciana compiles the materials to create the master handout that will be given at the presentation. Although neither of them initially articulated their specific roles, each role developed because of their complementary, yet different, skills and interests. Today, they each automatically assume these roles. However, on other projects, such as the writing of this article, they adjust their individual roles as the need arises. Sometimes these roles are determined by who has more time to do a certain task; at other times the roles are determined by their individual preferences and talents.

Luciana and Sally are able to make their collaboration work well because they manage not to have power struggles in their relationship, instead handling all decisions with communication and compromise. Lasley, Matczynski, and Williams (1992) explain that "in collaborative partnerships, power is shared, and goals are set by consensus" (p. 257). Because of their mutual respect, neither Luciana nor Sally has any energy invested in being "right" or in being the one to make all the decisions. Such mutual respect is paramount if such a collaborative relationship is going to work, whether the two people involved are native-speaking or nonnative-speaking educators. Clark and Watson (1998) state that in order for a collaborative relationship to work, it is essential that the people involved let go of being the one always in power or always in the limelight. Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992) state this even more strongly when they recommend that if one is interested in selecting a partner for collaboration, people who are controlling or have the need to be a "prima donna" should be avoided.

Luciana and Sally handle the process of decision making by always beginning any new task—be it designing a classroom activity, planning a presentation, or even writing this article—with brainstorming to discover what they think or what they know. Then, whichever one comes up with an idea first makes a suggestion. If the other sees a problem, she suggests an alternative that they then discuss again. This process of back-and-forth discussion, suggestions, and alternatives results in either a combination of ideas, a compromise, or an acquiescence by one party. But at the core of this is the knowledge that each person is bringing her own particular talents and knowledge to the situation. The respect that they each feel for each other and each other's uniqueness has never yet made any decision wholly the work of one or a problem for either.

All collaborative relationships might not, however, work as smoothly as Luciana and Sally's. Even if some conflicts or challenges arise, collaboration should still be pursued as many of these conflicts can be overcome, especially if the partners are willing and able to work through their differences. Baldwin and Austin (1995) interviewed many collaborators and asked them to give metaphors for their collaborative relationships. Some of the words mentioned were "marriage," "sisterhood," "partnership," "teammates," "buddy," and "friendship." As with any successful, close relationship, there needs to be deep mutual respect and the process of give and take. If those seeking to collaborate remember to keep these qualities paramount in their relationship, conflicts should be able to be resolved and the relationship maintained.

Perceived Benefits of Collaborating

When two people work toward a common goal, a synergy tends to occur. Often just the process of exchanging ideas with another stimulates new ideas. Similarly, when one person shares a classroom activity or handout with another person, that person often elaborates on and improves upon the original. The intellectual stimulation that occurred as a result of their collaboration became clear to Sally and Luciana only after they began working together. This is the true value of collaboration, which tends to be heightened when it involves a native and nonnative speaker.

Benefits for the Nonnative English-Speaking Professional

Luciana's association with Sally has enabled her to acquire idioms, vocabulary, and pronunciation as well as to gain sociolinguistic competence (i.e., the knowledge of when to appropriately use specific words or phrases). Learning new idioms tends to be difficult even if one has a fairly good knowledge of vocabulary. For instance, in Portuguese the idiom "kick the bucket" means "make a mistake," prompting Luciana (until otherwise informed by Sally) to assume this same meaning when hearing the phrase uttered in English. Sally also helped Luciana learn how to pronounce words that were difficult for her (such as "managed" and "damaged") by allowing her to watch her mouth as she pronounced each word and by teaching her how to break the words into syllables and pronounce the sounds separately—an effective technique that Luciana has since shared with her students. Nonnative speakers face situations that require not only knowledge of vocabulary, idioms, and pronunciation but also sociolinguistic competence. For instance, when Luciana arrived in the U.S., she did not know how to answer the greeting "What's up?" as she had never learned this greeting in Brazil. She therefore asked Sally what it meant and how to respond to it. As a result, she now not only interacts appropriately when encountering this phrase but has also taught it to her Brazilian colleagues. For Luciana, having a native English-speaking colleague assist her with these nuances of American English has made her a more knowledgeable, confident teacher.

Benefits for the Native English-Speaking Professional

By collaborating with Luciana, Sally has become better able to understand the process of learning ESL and EFL. It is one thing to study the theory of second language acquisition that is taught in graduate classes but another to actually know someone well who has gone through the process and be able to ask them questions. In turn, Luciana shared strategies that she used to acquire English, many of which Sally has subsequently suggested to her students. For example, Luciana makes lists of new vocabulary words and verb forms that she needs to memorize and posts them on her bathroom mirror so that every time she looks at the mirror, she sees the words. While this strategy may seem odd, it has worked very well for Luciana. Sally shared this strategy as well as others with her students, who responded favorably because they were actual strategies used by a successful English language learner.

Additionally, when a native speaker has a collaborative relationship with a nonnative speaker, she is able to gain an in-depth knowledge about another culture and, in the process, also gain more insight into the cultural needs of students studying in the U.S. The term "culture shock" takes on a new meaning and a greater significance when one can discuss it in detail with someone who has actually experienced it. The insight that the native speaker gains can make the native speaker more aware of what her students are going through and, consequently, more sensitive to her students' needs.

Although Sally and Luciana did not keep a formal diary of their collaborative relationship, they were required to keep a self-reflective teaching journal while they were in the graduate program. The following journal entry by Sally exemplifies the value gained by a native speaker who has the input of a nonnative speaking professional:

> I spoke to Luciana about a grammar activity on identifying subjects and verbs that I did in class last week which did not seem to go over very well. She gave me some great advice. She said that as a second language learner herself, she had always found it helpful to identify the verb first before identifying the subject, and then to ask *who did whatever the action of the verb is.* So when I reviewed this part of grammar with my students, this is the strategy that I suggested. This time around the students did much better at identifying subjects. Thank-you, Luciana! (November 1, 1998)

Moreover, Luciana's experience as a learner of verb tenses in English specifically aided Sally in effectively teaching verb tense to ESL students—an arduous task for ESL and EFL students. As a former English language learner, Luciana had many good recommendations for helping language learners to grasp the concept of verb tense in English. For instance, she recommended grouping certain tenses together so that they could be better contrasted and, therefore, perhaps, easier for many students to learn.

Finally, collaborating with Luciana helped Sally become aware of the importance of using language modification strategies in the language classroom. In the course of their conversations, Sally used many idioms and vocabulary with which Luciana was not familiar. Since Luciana asked the meaning of these items, the necessity of always defining unfamiliar lexical items to students became apparent to Sally, leading her to incorporate this awareness into her day-to-day teaching. Even though the necessity of defining unfamiliar vocabulary is mentioned in ESL methods classes and textbooks, it is only through the experience of working with a nonnative colleague (who *will* question the meaning of unknown lexical items, unlike many ESL students) that this awareness becomes internalized.

As a native speaker, one can only have theoretical knowledge of what it is like to learn English as a second language. A non-native speaking professional who has actually gone through the process knows firsthand what it is like and can illuminate the process for the native speaking educator.

Benefits for Students

Luciana and Sally's students benefit from the enhanced cultural and linguistic awareness that results from these educators' collaborative relationship. For example, Luciana now knows more about U.S. culture and can pass this information along to her students. Sally, on the other hand, now has insights into what it is like for an English language learner to be in a different culture and to get along with different people. She is able to use Luciana as a model for her students, sharing Luciana's experiences and strategies and inspiring them in their study of English. Hearing about the success of a nonnative speaker now working in the U.S. as an English teacher makes the goal of fluency seem more achievable and motivates Sally's learners to work hard to achieve their own individual goals.

Additional Benefits

Complementing the benefits to their students are the benefits Luciana and Sally have reaped from their association. As teachers, their collaboration has helped reduce preparation time since they have been able to share class handouts and even course curricula. For example, Luciana had taught the first-tier writing course (for students who fail the university's writing skills test) four times before Sally was assigned that particular class. Luciana was therefore able to provide Sally with copies of all her class materials and handouts, drastically reducing Sally's prep time. Sally reciprocated by sharing her class materials for the second tier writing course, one she has taught 10 different times. This helped Luciana better understand the curriculum that followed hers. As a result, she was better able to prepare her first-tier students for this course. She was also able to save these materials for her future teaching situations. Little (1987) mentions that when colleagues "work in concert," besides reducing their individual planning time they also increase their ideas and materials. Sally and Luciana's collaboration provides clear support for Little's claim.

In addition to benefiting their teaching, their collaboration has helped them both grow as professionals. Luciana had done numerous presentations while she was in Brazil, but Sally had not done any before she graduated from the TESOL program. Since Luciana had experience and was comfortable with presenting, she suggested to Sally that they co-present. This offer is essentially what prompted Sally to start presenting. Being able to collaborate and co-present makes the whole process easier because colleagues can inspire one another, generate numerous ideas by brainstorming, and share the workload—important advantages when one is teaching full-time and time is limited. Professional presentations not only help Sally and Luciana grow as professionals but also enhance their development as language educators. Their co-presentations allow them to share some of the things they are doing in their classes with other professionals and to receive feedback and suggestions. Also, preparing the presentations and writing articles such as this one help Sally and Luciana to become better teachers because of their continual reflection about what they are doing in their classrooms.

Conclusion

If Sally and Luciana had known what benefits could accrue from native and nonnative English-speaking educator collaboration, they would probably have formed such an association sooner. Through their experience, they have come to recognize the specific benefits unique to collaboration between native and nonnative English-speaking educators. They not only intend to continue sharing teaching ideas and co-presenting; they are even discussing collaborating on a book.

Despite the current research on teacher collaboration (DiPardo, 1999; Riordan & da Costa, 1996), not much research has been done on collaborative relationships between native English-speaking and nonnative English-speaking educators. Further research in this area would be of great value to the community of TESOL educators, as would further articles written on the specific benefits of native and nonnative collaboration. Both these enterprises might help encourage this type of collaboration.

Furthermore, such collaboration could also be built into graduate programs where directors of such programs would encourage, recommend, and even require students in the program to experiment with the act of collaboration. Such collaboration could take the form of team-teaching or finding a partner to work with while doing their practicum experience, as Luciana and Sally did. Although not required to form a partnership, they have both gained so much from their association that they feel others might also benefit from such a relationship. Kamhi-Stein (1999) describes how she has implemented collaborative projects in the classes she teaches in the MATESOL program at California State University, Los Angeles, suggesting the importance of encouraging collaboration between native and nonnative teachers. If such collaborative experiences were systematically built into graduate programs, more successful collaborative relationships might be born. At the very least, the participants would be able to use their resulting knowledge of collaboration when assigning collaborative tasks to their students. Requiring this type of collaboration could even span different graduate programs, for example, students in MATESOL programs could be asked to collaborate with graduate students majoring in literature. Given the diversity of the student population in most U.S. colleges and universities today, anyone teaching English will have nonnative speakers in their classrooms and could benefit from the input of a nonnative educator.

For nonnative English-speaking educators, the benefits of collaboration with a native speaker tend to be apparent. For example, several nonnative speakers in the MATESOL program at CSUH have asked Luciana how they might start such collaboration. Luciana advised them to pay close attention to other students in the program who might want to develop such a relationship and who seem committed to spending time discussing aspects of their teaching.

Because of the many benefits that can be gained from such an association, Sally and Luciana recommend that future and practicing native and nonnative English-speaking teachers actively pursue a collaborative relationship. The following suggestions stem from their own experience:

1. The key step involves approaching another individual and expressing the wish to collaborate.
2. Those wishing to collaborate should use the opportunities that present themselves to identify possible collaborators. (Graduate students taking classes together or educators serving on the same committee or attending the same meetings can use these opportunities to determine individuals who seem compatible.)
3. Successful collaborations tend to involve a blend of personalities.
4. Collaborators must work at getting along well and learn to respect one another.
5. Both parties must recognize how much they can gain from the collaboration. A native English-speaking educator will gain just as much as a nonnative in this type of collaboration.

When one finds another professional with whom to collaborate, the way to maintain such a relationship is to have mutual respect, appreciate each other's differences, let go of any investment in being the one who has to always "run the show," and utilize each person's individual strengths. There is so much to be gained by this type of collaborative relationship that the opportunity should not be missed.

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Endnote

[1] The idea for this type of journal was inspired by a handout produced by Joyce Podevyn based on the Cornell note-taking system. (J. Podevyn, unpublished course material, March 1999)

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The CATESOL Journal

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Diary Studies: The Voices of Nonnative English Speakers in a Master of Arts Program in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

This study analyzes the diary entries of four nonnative English-speaking (NNES) students enrolled in a master of art's (MA) program in teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) in Southern California. A qualitative analysis of the diary entries shows that, in spite of the differences in the participants' background in English language learning, length of U.S. residence, and professional goals, there are four common themes in the diaries: (a) feeling language anxiety, (b) coping with feelings of inferiority, (c) coping with their language needs, and (d) bringing strength to the TESOL program. The study shows that the students experienced language anxiety but were able to use coping mechanisms to overcome difficulties. At the same time, this study highlights the strengths that these NNES students brought to the MA TESOL program in which they were enrolled.

According to the most recent TESOL directory, 194 MA TESOL programs are offered in the U.S., which does not include the additional nine MA TESOL programs in Canada (Garshick, 1998). Nonnative English speakers make up close to 40% of the students enrolled in these programs (Liu, 1999). In a national survey of 63 MA TESOL programs, England and Roberts (1989) found that the admission requirements in all but three of the programs were the same for native English-speaking (NES) and for NNES students. After being admitted to MA TESOL programs, NNES students must succeed in their classes and, more importantly, overcome any feelings of doubt they may have about their NNES status.

The present study was conducted in order to investigate NNES students' views about the demands of their MA TESOL programs. Specifically, the study focuses on the experiences of NNES students while taking courses in English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL) theory and methodology. Data collection relied on the use of diaries which, as noted by Nunan (1992), can be "important introspective tools in language research" (p. 118). Diaries have also been used in TESOL teacher preparation (Bailey (1990). Bailey suggests that one of the responsibilities of teacher educators "during preservice preparation is to provide beginning teachers with usable tools for self evaluation, for ongoing development in the absence of our input" (p. 226). While there is an ever-growing body of literature related to different types of diary studies, little research concerning diary studies has specifically focused on NNES students in MA TESOL programs.

This article presents a review of literature on the use of diaries in TESOL teacher preparation and reviews the different sources of anxiety experienced by NNES professionals in the TESOL field. Following the literature review is a description of the methods used in this study, the findings, and the conclusions.

Literature Review

Uses of Diaries

Diaries can be used to show how graduate students in MA TESOL programs mature and gain the confidence they need to become teachers. Some diaries are used primarily as dialogues between teacher trainers and graduate students in MA TESOL programs (Holten & Brinton, 1995; Numrich, 1996). Other diaries consist of exchanges between student teachers and ESL students (Cray & Currie, 1996; Gray, 1998) or exchanges between student teachers (Dong, 1997). Diary studies have also been used to evaluate teacher preparation courses (Halbach, 1999) or in-service teacher training (C. H. Palmer, 1992; G. M. Palmer, 1992; Woodfield & Lazarus, 1998).

Brinton and her colleagues have collaborated on a number of diary studies of students in MA TESOL programs (Brinton & Holten, 1989; Brinton, Holten & Goodwin, 1993; Holten & Brinton, 1995). In 1989, Brinton and Holten analyzed the diaries of 20 student teachers (5 native, 15 nonnative English speakers). The researchers divided the students' diary entries into different categories and documented how often students made comments in those categories. Although there were no major differences between NES and NNES student teachers in the total number of comments made, the NNES student teachers made more comments in the categories dealing with lesson organization and methods and activities. In contrast, NNES student teachers made fewer comments in the categories that involved teaching techniques and the instructional setting. The NNES student teachers "used the dialogue journals as a chance to focus on their own lesson preparation, presentation, and classroom predicaments" (p. 347). In another study, Brinton, Holten, and Goodwin (1993) responded to the students' entries in an attempt to create a "collaborative relationship between the novice teacher and the teacher educator" (p.16). In responding to the students' entries, the teacher educators sought to avoid building false confidence in their students. Instead, they shared their own experiences and responded directly and personally. In this manner, they were able to use the diaries as an effective teaching tool.

Diaries can also be used to encourage self-reflection (Dong, 1997; McAlpine, 1992; Numrich, 1996; Thornbury, 1991). Numrich (1996) performed a needs analysis of 26 students' diaries from a 10-week MA TESOL teaching practicum course, identifying the common issues noted by the novice ESL teachers. By discovering the interests and needs of her students, she was able to facilitate their learning. Some of these concerns were (a) the need to make the classroom a safe environment, (b) the need to create a comfortable environment, and (c) the need for control when their ESL students interrupted the class. The most frequently mentioned frustrations reported were managing class time, giving clear directions, and responding to students' various needs. In another study (Thornbury, 1991) student teachers used their logs to plan and evaluate their lessons. In this study, the primary purpose of the diaries was self-reflection; student teachers were not asked to dialogue with their peers or with the supervising instructor.

While student teachers' diary entries are frequently only read by instructors, Dong (1997) decided to have student teachers read each other's diary entries. In a semester-long teaching practicum class, which was required for state TESOL certification, nine students wrote responses to their peers' diary entries. Some of the positive results documented in the study were that the diary response activity offered emotional support, allowed the teacher educator to determine students' needs, gave information about the curriculum and public school culture, and provided opportunities for self-reflection.

In another study, Polio and Wilson-Duffy (1998) analyzed the journal entries of three international MA TESOL student teachers enrolled in a teaching practicum. The participants' journal entries tended to reflect pedagogical concerns rather than the emotions and other related problems of the student teachers. Polio and Wilson-Duffy found that the NNES student teachers had concerns that were similar to those that pre-service teachers generally have, such as lesson timing, class size, board use, and student levels. In addition, they also had concerns that were specifically related to the fact that English was not their native language, including worrying about not being understood by students, generally underestimating their language proficiency, and not having confidence to discuss U.S. culture. Polio and Wilson-Duffy argued that pairing NES and NNES student teachers could help provide NNES student teachers with needed linguistic or cultural knowledge. They also believed that, in turn, the NNES student teachers could assist NES peers since they had "a better sense of the ESL students' background knowledge of U.S. culture" (p. 27).

Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (1999) had students keep a different type of journal in a graduate seminar designed to (a) raise the students' consciousness about the status of NNES teachers and (b) empower the NNES students as English language teaching professionals. In one part of their journals, student teachers wrote an imaginary dialogue with Medgyes (1994) reflecting what they perceived to be the positive and negative aspects of his book, *The Non-*

native Teacher. Student teachers benefited from this experience in different ways. Some students developed "a deeper understanding of the contexts in which English is taught" (p. 423). Others gained a sense of empowerment; for example, one student wrote, "I am more interested in 'who can do what' rather than 'who is better'" (p. 423).

In summary, diaries have been used effectively to promote dialogue between teacher educators and student teachers and among student teachers, to provide teacher educators with inside information on student teachers' needs, and to promote self-reflection among student teachers. Keeping a diary allows student teachers to reflect on their teaching techniques and to improve their teaching. It thus also allows them to more fully realize their potential and gain a sense of empowerment. Regardless of the methodology and purpose underlying the use of diaries in TESOL teacher preparation programs, they can be very powerful tools.

NNES Professionals and Anxiety

NNES professionals experience anxiety in different ways. Winer (1992) analyzed the diary entries of about 100 MA TESOL student teachers (about 60% of whom were NNES international graduate students). She found that neither NES nor NNES student teachers feel completely comfortable criticizing the work of other classmates. However, NNES student teachers are reluctant to give feedback to their NES peers on "discrete errors because they feel they lack linguistic competence and also assume that NES writer's organization must be, by definition, correct" (p. 70). According to Winer, the anxiety experienced by NNES student teachers intimidated them into thinking that they didn't have the right to criticize their NES peers. This was true even though the NNES student teachers often had explicit knowledge of grammar, knew writing rules, and were able to give explanations for them, whereas the NES students sometimes could not. At the same time, NES student teachers were reluctant to criticize their NNES counterparts, perhaps because they didn't want to hurt the feelings of student teachers who they felt were already having problems in the class. Still, Winer found more similarities than differences in the experiences of NES and NNES student teachers in the practicum. For instance, about 90% of all the student teachers, regardless of language status, felt apprehension about writing, expressing their feelings toward this skill with words such as "dread," "anxiety," "afraid," and "apprehension" (p. 60-61). Most of the student teachers also indicated that certain writing topics bored them or intimidated them and that they were insecure about their writing skills and about their teaching and grading skills. Despite the differences between the NES and NNES students, collaboration between these two groups was generally found to be mutually beneficial. NES student teachers tended to view their NNES peers as valuable sources of information. In turn, NNES student teachers helped their NES peers realize how culturally-bound some assignments were. However, tensions between the two groups surfaced at times. For example, Winer reported that when the students work together in groups, the NES student teachers note frustration with their NNES classmates' "'incompetence' as supposed peers and become disappointed that they are not getting as much help from them as they are giving" (p.70). The NNES student teachers, on the other hand, sometimes become frustrated with their NES classmates because of their arrogance, condescension, or incompetent help. They also report feelings of guilt when asking for help.

NNES student teachers are also concerned about the perceptions that ESL and EFL students might have about them. For example, Polio and Wilson-Duffy (1998) reported that one NNES student teacher in their study expressed her anxiety by writing, "What if they [students] don't listen to me? What if they thought my English is poor? All nonnative speakers are worried about that" (p. 25). Polio and Duffy also reported that the NNES student teachers in their study "were afraid that the ESL students would not understand them, that they would misspell words, and that they would not understand U.S. slang, idioms, and cultural references in authentic texts" (p. 27). Greis (1984) addressed similar issues and added that some NNES student teachers feel a sense of competition with their NES peers.

After NNES student teachers earn their MA TESOL degree and find employment as EFL or ESL teachers, their fears are sometimes realized. While Thomas (a NNES teacher) was teaching an ESL writing class, one of her students told her, "When I first saw you, I felt certain that I wouldn't like the class" (1999, p. 8). Because the student had spent a lot of money to study in the U.S., she was hoping to have a NES teacher. In Japan, a NNES teacher teaching EFL felt pressured to conform to her students' expectations for her to teach more like a NES teacher who taught at the same school (Duff & Uchida, 1997). In a study of NNES minority ESL teachers in Canada, Amin (1999) found that many ESL students believed that the only real English is "Canadian English," which can only be taught by a real Canadian, in other words a male Anglo Saxon Canadian teacher. Amin found that, as a Pakistani woman with one master's degree in English literature and another in English language, the attitudes of her students were very disempowering. Still, other studies (Cook, 1999, 2000; Kamhi-Stein, 1999) show that language status does not necessarily result in ESL students preferring NES teachers. Specifically, Kamhi-Stein (1999) quoted the journal entry of an Asian ESL student who said, "Most Asian students think American teacher who has blue eye and brown hair is much better than Asian-looking teacher, but I don't think so" (p.150). Cook (1999, 2000) assessed children's attitudes towards their ESL teachers and found that they did not have an overwhelming preference for NES teachers. Cook's surveys (which are a work in progress) indicated that the children in a country that recognizes two languages are more likely to prefer NNES teachers to NES teachers. The fact that a teacher was a NES teacher was only one of many factors influencing children's attitudes toward teachers.

Objectives of the Study

The objective of this study was to better understand the feelings of NNES students in an MA TESOL program, as reported in their diary entries. The research questions guiding this study were as follow:

1. What, if any, are the anxieties identified in the diary entries of NNES students in the MA TESOL program?
2. What, if any, are the coping strategies that NNES students implement to deal with the demands of their MA TESOL program?
3. What strengths, if any, do NNES students see themselves as bringing to their MA TESOL program?

Method

Setting and Participants

The participants in this study were four students in an MA TESOL program at an urban university in southern California. At the time of the study, the first participant, Julie,[1] had been in the U.S. for 10 years. She was born in Taiwan and her native language was Mandarin Chinese. She started learning English in Taiwan at the age of 13 in a classroom setting. Instructors were not native speakers of English and used the grammar-translation method (GTM) and the audio-lingual method (ALM). Verbal fluency was not expected; the curriculum focused on reading and writing tasks to prepare students to take university entrance exams and relied heavily on repetition and drilling exercises. After she finished high school in Taiwan, she came to the U.S. Once in California, Julie went to a community college for two years and took ESL classes that earned credit but did not transfer to four-year universities. After she finished her ESL courses, she took two remedial English classes designed for native speakers of English to improve their essay writing skills. Julie then transferred to a four-year university and majored in biology. At home and in her other activities she preferred to use her native language. During this time, she held several jobs. Only one of them, which she had for 10 months, required her to use English; she had to speak to clients on the telephone for many hours a day. Therefore, after the termination of that job, Julie's use of English was limited to school. When she later decided she wanted to improve her language skills, she enrolled in a TESOL graduate program, hoping that knowing more about language acquisition would help her own English learning process. After Julie obtained her degree, she planned to go back to her country to teach EFL.

Sally, the second participant, was born in Korea and, at the time of the study, had lived in the U.S. for five years. In elementary school, she had her first exposure to English through children's songs. For six years, in middle and high school, Sally received English instruction five hours a week. The teachers were nonnative speakers of English and used mostly the GTM. In college, she majored in Korean Language and Literature. When she first arrived in California, she went to an adult school and took ESL courses from levels four to six, the latter being the highest level possible. In her daily activities at home, and with her close friends, Sally used Korean to communicate. She used English at school and for school-related activities such as talking to classmates and writing papers. Like Julie, Sally felt that she "was very limited in English skills" and that by working toward an MA TESOL degree, she would "conquer English." After she decided to earn this degree, she went to a community college for one year to earn credit and to raise her grade-point-average to enable her to enroll in an MA TESOL program. One of her goals was to return to her country and open a private language school.

The third participant, Anita, was born in Panama to Chinese immigrant parents. At the time of the investigation, she had been in the U.S. for 12 years. As a child, she spoke Cantonese at home, but Spanish was her native language. In Panama, she started studying English in the third grade, and up until the seventh grade she had English instruction twice a week, with each class approximately one hour long. All of her teachers except one were nonnative speakers of English who used both GTM and ALM. After many years, she had not learned much and could not communicate in English. Therefore, she decided to go to a private language institution, and within a few months she had learned more English than she had in all her previous years at school. She credits her success at learning English to the communicative approach and to other current methods of language instruction that teachers used at the language institution. Anita came here on a student visa, planning to start eighth grade. Before the beginning of the academic year, she attended summer school and had English instruction in a sheltered environment. In the fall when classes started, she was placed in an ESL class. However, after only a few months, she was mainstreamed into English-only classes. She believes that one of the reasons she learned English so quickly is because she used the target language extensively outside of the classroom as it was the common language with her schoolmates. She said that at first she would interact in Cantonese with the Chinese-speaking group, then in Spanish with the Spanish-speaking group. Finally she decided it was easier to use English with everyone. After high school, she went to UCLA and initially majored in Chemistry. She took classes in other departments as well and then decided to change her major to Linguistics and Spanish. While taking an elective course in ESL teaching theories, Anita discovered that she wanted to teach ESL, so after she graduated, she chose to obtain a master's degree in TESOL. Her goals were to teach ESL in high school, a community college, or abroad.

The last participant, Lucy, is from Paraguay. At the time of this study, she had been in the U.S. for six months on a Fulbright scholarship. She had started learning English when she was in high school. For three years, she had classes that met once a week for approximately two hours. The instructors were nonnative speakers of English and used GTM to teach. All lessons were in Spanish, her native language. After high school, she enrolled in a private language institute where she had two-hour classes twice a week for four years. There, the instructors used mainly the ALM. In college, she majored in English. After graduating from college, she taught EFL at a private bilingual (Spanish-English) school in Paraguay.

Data Collection

Two types of instruments were used to collect data: diaries and interviews. Three of the participants kept a diary for one quarter, and the fourth kept one for two quarters. The rationale for using diaries rather than interviews was that they provide students the chance to work at their own pace and to have more control over the language, minimizing stress-related inhibitions. Participants wrote in their diaries either after each class meeting or at the end of the school week. They were instructed to record their feelings and reactions to the classes in which they were enrolled. At the end of the quarter, the diaries were collected and read by the authors of this article. Then, each participant was interviewed over the telephone. In these interviews, the participants provided biographical information and answered the question, "As a nonnative speaker of English, what, if any, are the strengths that you bring to the MA TESOL program in which you are enrolled?" Each interview lasted from 15 to 20 minutes.

Julie kept a diary for two quarters. During the first quarter, she often wrote in her diary after weekly meetings of the two courses she was taking, "Discourse Analysis" and "Theories of Second Language Teaching and Learning." The following quarter, Julie was enrolled in another two courses, "Teaching English for Academic Purposes" and "Language Testing." Sally kept a diary for one quarter while she was taking classes in "Theories of Second Language Teaching and Learning," "Phonetics for the Second Language Teachers," and essay writing. She also tried to write at least once a week after each class meeting. Anita kept a diary for one quarter while she was taking "Teaching English for Academic Purposes." She wrote consistently every week, most of the time after each class meeting while her thoughts were still fresh. Finally, during the period she kept the diary, Lucy was enrolled in two courses, "Theories of Second Language Teaching and Learning" and "Issues in Classroom Second Language Acquisition." She wrote once a week usually at the end of the week. She focused on language issues and divided her diary into the areas of reading, writing, library research, class participation, and what she called "something positive," where she recorded ways in which she felt successful in the program.

Prior research has shown that NNES professionals face many difficulties in the TESOL field, ranging from language barriers in graduate programs to employment issues and insecurities as NNES professionals (e.g., Greis, 1984; Kamhi-Stein, Lee, & Lee, 1999; Polio & Wilson-Duffy, 1998; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999; Thomas, 1999). Therefore, before analyzing the diary entries, we anticipated that possible findings would include perceived shortcomings and strengths arising from the participants' second language status, as well as from the participants' coping mechanisms. We analyzed the diary entries by engaging in a process of recursive reading, identifying recurring responses, and assigning the responses to themes.

Findings

In spite of the differences in the students' English language learning background, length of U.S. residence, and professional goals, four common themes emerged in the diaries: feeling language anxiety, coping with feelings of inferiority, coping with their language needs, and bringing strength to the TESOL program.

Feeling Language Anxiety

The participants reported a high level of language anxiety due to the fact that they were NNES students. This anxiety was especially present in the areas of reading, writing, and speaking. The students were so anxious about what they perceived to be their English ability that they frequently felt incapacitated. For example, their ability to participate in classroom discussion was impaired because they felt self-conscious about their English language abilities.

Listening and speaking skills. In general, listening did not appear to be a major source of anxiety. Interestingly, the participant who had been in the U.S. the longest (Anita) was the only one who directly pointed out the frustration she felt on the first day of class when she missed essential information. In one of her entries, she stated, "During lecture, it was hard for me to catch up…I must have missed quite a few concepts…I was frustrated…first day of school and already behind" (September 26, 2000).

While Anita was the only participant who voiced dissatisfaction with her listening skills, all the participants felt strong language anxiety when asked to speak in class, a concern also expressed by Liu (in this issue). This anxiety was especially strong when participants had something to say but had to struggle to overcome the fear of their language ability being judged by their peers. Although they had a contribution to make to the class discussions, the possibility that their linguistic ability might be judged as less than perfect heightened their anxiety. All the participants reported the need to formulate thoughts in their minds and correct mistakes before speaking. However, they said that at times they would simply speak without planning in advance, which resulted in less than perfect speech or unorganized ideas. In other instances, they would spend so much time perfecting sentences that the opportunity to respond would be lost when another student in class would answer first (see Liu in this issue for a discussion on the same topic). Revealing their feelings of anxiety in the area of speaking, the participants reported the following:

> When it's my turn to talk, I stumble. I give out a short answer with no explanation or talk without my thinking together. (Julie, April 26, 2000)
>
> Sometimes I felt I wanted to say something but somebody else just said while I was trying to organize the ideas in my mind. (Lucy, November 26, 2000)
>
> I believe I am so anxious about the language that sometimes I tend to omit or mix ideas when I participate in class. Then, I am not very sure

> if what I said was well understood or well expressed. (Lucy, November 14, 2000)

These results support the notion that NNES students should be eased into the requirements of the U.S. academic classroom by integrating participatory structures in MA TESOL programs that are more conducive to NNES student participation. Such participatory structures might include the use of electronic bulletin board discussions and e-mail activities. As shown by previous studies (Kamhi-Stein, 2000), such discussions reduce cultural and linguistic barriers and allow students to hear different view points.

Reading and writing skills. In the area of reading, Lucy and Sally, the two participants who had been in the U.S. for the least amount of time, expressed the most anxiety. Referring to the time spent reading for weekly courses, Sally said, "The time I spend for one class is approximately six to eight hours." Lucy also expressed similar frustration, especially at the beginning of her first quarter, as the entry below illustrates.

> Last week I spent about four hours a day reading. I found that reading the first time to get the general idea; and then working on study guides helps organize information and facilitate comprehension. (November 14, 2000)

Towards the end of the quarter, however, Lucy's entries revealed that although reading was still time consuming, she had an increased understanding of the readings and improved reading strategies:

> I feel that I can sit and read chapters in my books and don't need to read the same paragraph over and over again as I did when I just started this quarter. I feel that little by little reading seems more automatic. (November 14, 2000)
>
> I still spent a tremendous amount of time reading, about 3 hrs a day. Even though I can feel that my fluency in reading improved, I am still a slow reader. (November 26, 2000)

In the writing area, Anita, who had attended high school in the U.S., was the only participant to say, "I feel more comfortable writing." The other three participants encountered difficulties in writing, as it took time and effort to organize ideas and check grammar and spelling. Although Julie and Sally mentioned their struggles in writing a paper, it was Lucy who summed up the general consensus:

> I believe writing is the hardest thing to do in a foreign or second language. It demands a certain style in English. Besides the style and organization, there are also other items such as spelling, grammar and vocabulary to pay close attention to…I need to spend a lot of time trying to express my ideas, sometimes getting the adequate word and checking the dictionary for spelling. This week I spent about 4 hours a day writing. (November 1, 2000)

While in her first quarter of study Lucy reported struggling to fulfill her writing assignments. Her quotation above reflects a later stage in her process of developing competence as an academic writer. As shown in this quotation, she was very much aware of the requirements of writing for academic purposes.

Coping With Feelings of Inferiority

Besides having to deal with language anxiety, the diaries also indicated that these students shared another perception: They felt inferior to their NES peers and believed the NES did not have the same difficulties or have to work as hard as the NNES students. Overall, there was a sense that NES students had a linguistic advantage over their NNES counterparts, which explains why Julie sought the help of a NES peer in order to do better in class:

> Kevin, a native English-speaking student, has helped me out with my midterm paper for the theories class. He asked me to read for an hour, and then I could discuss with him. After the reading, I still did not get very far, so he helped me with the outline of the paper. (April 30, 2000)
>
> I've felt more comfortable in my discourse analysis class after I got help/support from him [Kevin]. (April 5, 2000)

In addition to seeking the help of NES peers, these NNES students showed a general sense of inferiority, as indicated by Anita when she sought validation from other NNES students. Explaining the events of the first day of class, she noted: "I wondered how my other NNES peers felt…Most of us agreed that her [the professor's] pace was too fast for us; we couldn't catch up with the lecture." In the same entry, Anita wrote, "Interestingly, one of our classmates, a native speaker, thought the pace was fine and had no trouble following through." These comments helped to confirm the different language abilities of the NNES students and their NES peers.

Coping With Their Language Needs

Besides having to deal with the requirements of the program, the participants also had to cope with their own language needs. Although they reported feeling anxiety when speaking, the skills that created the most anxiety were reading and writing, which, therefore, required the most attention and effort. That reading and writing produced the highest anxiety supports prior findings (Kamhi-Stein, Lee, & Lee, 1999). These results are not unexpected given that in academic settings most tasks require reading-to-write for the purpose of demonstrating content understanding.

The most common way that the participants reported coping with their own language needs was to spend extra time keeping up with the reading assignments. They also reported spending a significant amount of time writing papers and preparing for presentations. Although not as demanding as these activities, the participants also mentioned the time spent thinking about what to say in classes during discussions or when they felt they had something important to say. The participants made the following comments about the extra demands on their time:

> I spent a lot of time just to write 3 pages that I had for my reading class last week. Write it, and rewrite it and rewrite it. (Lucy, October 24, 2000)
>
> I practice presentations, speeches, anything that requires public speaking, over and over again. (Anita, September 26, 2000)

Bringing Strength to the TESOL Program

When asked the question, "What are the strengths that nonnative speakers of English bring to the TESOL Program?" the participants unanimously agreed that the most valuable asset is their experience as learners of English. The participants reported that having learned English as a second language themselves enabled them to better understand the problems and struggles their future students might face. Therefore, the theories discussed in class could be better understood and brought to life when NNES peers shared their experiences with their classmates. Lucy explained it well when she said, "I can understand and feel what the professor is saying about the theories, and I can put myself into the learners' shoes when I am preparing a lesson plan." Sharing their experience was seen as a positive aspect of being a NNES student in the TESOL program because they could offer their expertise and perspectives in learning a second language to the rest of the class and form a network of support with other NNES peers in the program.

Conclusion

Being in a graduate program in the U.S. can be challenging. Being a nonnative speaker of English in the TESOL field makes it even more so, since NNES students are expected to have mastered the language they are planning to teach. The findings of this study reveal that, regardless of the differences in their backgrounds, the participants had common feelings and experiences as NNES students enrolled in an MA TESOL program. If at first the participants expressed concerns about their experiences in the classroom, upon further reflection they realized that they also brought many important attributes to their program, including but not limited to their first-hand understanding of the second language acquisition process.

This study has important implications for instruction. Specifically, MA TESOL programs should strive to meet the needs of NNES students in order to give them an equal chance of success in the programs. As already noted, this can be done by integrating participatory structures designed to promote NNES student participation. Another way to meet this goal would involve engaging students in reading-to-write tasks that reflect the demands of academic publishing. In these tasks, students could write for a specific journal audience and produce multiple drafts with the guidance of peers and the course instructor. Finally, TESOL programs should promote NES and NNES student collaboration so that both can become better teachers.

Although typically restricted to a small number of subjects, diary studies such as this one present an important means of gaining access to

NNES students' perceptions and experiences. It is hoped that future diary studies of NNES students enrolled in MA TESOL programs will provide more information about their perceptions. This information would greatly contribute to the understanding of how better to serve their needs and meet their expectations. After all, NNES teachers make up the majority of the world's EFL and ESL teachers. Research on them will affect the TESOL profession as a whole. By learning more about the challenges and triumphs of NNES students, both NES and NNES professionals can concentrate on uniting as EFL and ESL teachers rather than accepting the profession as one divided.

Authors

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Endnote

[1] All names have been changed.

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Issues in Hiring Nonnative English-Speaking Professionals to Teach English as a Second Language

■ This article discusses issues that influence the job search of nonnative English speaking (NNES) teachers in the U.S. Recent publications (Medgyes, 1994; Tang, 1997; Thomas, 1999) have shown that NNES teachers encounter discriminatory practices in employment because neither employers nor applicants grasp all the issues involved. Using the resolution from the organization Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) on NNES teachers and hiring practices ("A TESOL Statement," 1992) as a basis, this article will present a set of guidelines for administrators and NNES applicants to improve employment opportunities. The authors, themselves community college administrators, discuss factors that account for the attitudes of administrators, English as a second language (ESL) learners, and NNES job applicants.

With the use of English as a lingua franca worldwide, the explosive growth of the Internet, the increased use of English as a medium of instruction, and the resulting increased interest in learning English —we now have greater questioning of the definition of the term "native speaker" of English. Much like Chinese and Arabic speakers, English speakers around the world share a common writing system but are increasingly separated by a wide linguistic gulf in areas such as accent, speech patterns, slang, and cultural content. Just think of the native Englishes spoken in the U.K., U.S., Ireland, Australia, and South Africa. Would you not consider those who speak English as their first language from each of these countries to be native speakers of English? Yet speakers in each geographic area have a distinctive accent and their own set of slang and colorful expressions. How is the English of one of these native speakers different from that spoken by an English speaker from Bombay or Myanmar?

If English itself can be said to consist of many Englishes, why do some ESL programs hesitate to hire NNES teachers? As set out in the TESOL resolution on NNES teachers ("A TESOL Statement," 1992), administrators should carefully consider uniform perspectives on hiring to make sure they include sound programmatic and instructional expectations that address equal opportunity. The issues that account for the ambivalent attitude toward the hiring of NNES professionals in the U.S. are definable and can be discussed on a professional level. In this article, we address issues related to attitudes concerning fluency-accuracy and cultural authority as well as issues that surface when considering institutional hiring expectations. At the same time, we seek to offer constructive solutions for program administrators.

We understand that ESL and English as a foreign language (EFL) are taught in many venues and that there are no hard and fast rules to answer the questions that are posed in this article. That said, we wish to share our own answers to the questions. These answers reflect a collective experience of 39 years in the fields of ESL and EFL in teaching and in program administration. One of us, Kathleen Flynn (KF), is a native speaker of American English and was born in New York City. She became interested in the topic of "nativeness" after discovering that she needed to modify her New York dialect to find employment in different parts of the U.S. Kathleen has a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from the University of Southern California and for nine years was the Division Chairperson of Credit ESL at Glendale Community College in Glendale, California. She now divides her time between teaching ESL and chairing the College's Accreditation Self-Study. She is the CATESOL Community College Level Chair. The other author, Goedele Gulikers (GG), was born in Belgium. Her home language is Dutch and her second language is French. Goedele studied English as a third language in middle and high school. She obtained an MA in Slavic Philology from the University of Ghent, Belgium, where she started her career as a foreign language teacher. She later earned a Master of Education degree in TESOL from Rhode Island College in Providence, Rhode Island. Currently, Goedele is the associate professor of ESL at Prince George's Community College in Largo, Maryland. Until last year she worked as the Curriculum Coordinator for the ESL Program at Anne Arundel Community College, Maryland. This ESL Program offers courses at the adult education and intensive English program (IEP) levels in the county of Anne Arundel. Goedele supervised a staff of two instructional specialists and 36 part-time faculty.

This article is presented as a series of answers to six questions that we believe are critical to the issue of NNES hiring practices. We hope that the readers will find the questions thought provoking. We do not expect readers to agree with our answers on all of the points that we raise or the opinions that we offer. However, our goal is for the issues presented to be used as a basis for debate in an MA TESOL program or in an in-service workshop. Exploring these questions may open up an issue that requires more frank discussion and guidelines for decision making in both ESL and EFL programs.

Question 1: What are the expectations of program administrators in the U.S. when they hire NNES professionals? What qualifications do NNES need to have to be hired? What kind of professional training or experience or both do administrators expect when they hire NNES professionals? What criteria do program administrators employ for hiring NNES professionals?

GG: Program administrators expect NNES job candidates to have a high level of English skills—both spoken and written. If NNES professionals have an accent, it should not interfere with understanding. That is, their speech should be intelligible to both native and nonnative speakers of English. In many ESL programs, instructors are expected to teach both written and oral skills. NNES teachers who can only teach writing because their accent is very strong will probably not be hired to teach speaking or pronunciation classes. This limitation can be an impediment in the hiring process. While NNES professionals may be offered part-time assignments teaching writing, it would be harder for them to obtain full-time teaching positions in which they would be expected to teach all four skill areas.

KF: What is fluency? It is made up of several facets. A fluent speaker may have a discernible accent, but one that does not interfere with comprehension. Cultural fluency includes a knowledge of body language, pause length, and idiomatic expressions. Fluency, for the most part, comes after a period of residency in the country. Graduate students who learned English outside of the U.S. may need to evaluate what they have learned in light of current usage in the area they now reside. This is true as well for native speakers who move to a different area of the same country.

NNES professionals should also understand American culture. This includes a good understanding of the norms of student behavior in U.S. classrooms. For example, students in American classrooms, regardless of where they were born, do not stand when the teacher enters the room. Young male students may wish to leave their baseball caps on during class, and students may arrive in class chewing gum. Knowing how to react to student behaviors is an important part of becoming prepared for the job (Flynn, 1999).

Most program administrators expect all ESL job candidates to have an MA degree in TESOL, TEFL, or Applied Linguistics. Teaching experience in the U.S., even if only in a teaching practicum, is a plus. This type of experience can also be a local source of references for potential employers.

GG: When I was hiring teachers for my program, I first looked at people who had received an MA TESOL degree or EFL training. Experience in the kinds of programs that are offered at Anne Arundel Community College was a definite plus. If NNES teachers had significant experience in countries other than the U.S., I would look at the kind of programs in which they had taught and discuss with them what the differences in educational settings may involve. For example, if a NNES professional had taught English in a vocational setting, the candidate and I might discuss how the goals of a vocational student are viewed both inside and outside the U.S.

KF: One of the hiring criteria often mentioned is whether or not the ethnic or language background of the NNES teacher reflects the larger community or setting of the ESL program. Sometimes, however, NNES teachers are chosen because they reflect the population of the students who make up a large portion of the ESL program. Some school administrators feel that at least one person on staff should be knowledgeable about the students' culture and be able to assist other teachers if a cultural misunderstanding occurs.

GG: Most colleges and universities in the U.S. have a diversity mandate that requires hiring minorities. Some schools also require that the faculty include members of minority groups that reflect the community where the college is located. For IEPs, diversity involves reflecting cultures and languages from around the world. In community colleges that serve local needs, there is a strong desire for faculty to represent the major immigrant groups that reside in that particular community. On some campuses, diversity is a buzzword. Instead, diversity should be a way of life that is fostered so that it can become the culture of the classroom (Gulikers, 2000).

Question 2: Once NNES professionals are hired, what kinds of mentoring or support should programs or program administrators provide them? Is there a difference or should there be a difference in the support provided to NNES professionals and their native English-speaking colleagues? Finally, how should NNES professionals be evaluated?

GG: What new NNES teachers need is either professional support or a mentoring system or both provided by more experienced instructors. An ESL program that can offer such support will provide a smooth transition for new teachers. Administrators do not need to provide all of these services themselves. Experienced teachers can serve as mentors to provide their peers with information on the intricacies of the program. Support groups of newly-hired teachers can help with voicing concerns, and instructional specialists or coordinators can work with the newly-hired teachers on the implementation of successful practices.

NNES professionals need a workshop or discussion time with their program administrators or instructional specialists on how to deal with student attitudes toward their nonnativeness. With the strong support of the program administration, all teachers should become confident in their abilities and professionalism. The more experienced they are, the more confident they will become.

KF: Every new teacher needs a mentor and NNES professionals are no exception, even if they have been teaching for a few years. The rules of the classroom in a new country or setting are different. If the program does not provide mentors, the NNES professional should ask another teacher, ideally a full-time instructor or a senior part-time teacher, to serve in the role.

If the NNES teacher is fairly new to the teaching profession, some additional support (e.g., a meeting time) should be scheduled to discuss the American classroom and what may seem either strange or new. If problems surface, this is a good time to discuss classroom objectives and to schedule the new NNES teacher to observe other more senior instructors.

If the program maintains a file of sample course outlines or syllabi, the new NNES teacher should be asked to spend time looking at these samples. Discussing one or two of these samples could be a springboard to some very valuable discussions focused on instructional practices rather than on the NNES teacher. This approach can set the teacher at ease since it reflects the types of activities (e.g., critiquing) which the teacher may have experienced as a graduate student.

The whole evaluation process, including the concept of peer evaluation, needs to be spelled out very clearly since evaluations may be done differently in the NNES professionals' country of origin. If this is an area of discomfort, NNES teachers should ask more questions about the evaluation procedure when meeting with their mentors.

The program administrator may find it valuable to keep a list of the topics with which new NNES instructors need assistance. This list can be given to the mentors and the members of the support group and used when they meet to keep discussions on track. If program administrators use the same list of topics with all new instructors, then a sense of fairness will permeate the mentoring process.

Question 3: How should NNES professionals bring their professional concerns to the attention of coordinators or program administrators? How should NNES professionals react if they are perceived not to be "American" by their ESL students?

KF: I would hope that new NNES instructors would have a good enough working relationship with their program administrators to voice concerns and questions. The program administrator should schedule a meeting a few weeks into the semester or have a regularly scheduled meeting to discuss general issues. These meetings need not be formal. Indeed, formal meetings tend not to happen because of time constraints. I ask my new teachers to have lunch with me in my office on a regular basis, for example, two or three times in the first three months on the job. This saves us the trouble of scheduling a formal meeting and makes it more likely that we will sit down and talk. "Coffee chats" could serve the same purpose.

As for how NNES professionals should react if they are perceived not to be "American" by their students, I would suggest that they begin by asking a mentor or an American friend what makes them seem "foreign." Friends can sometimes give valuable advice in this area. NNES teachers may be perceived as "non-American" by ESL students because of their accent, their way of dress, or even their body language.

An ESL instructor related to me that his students kept asking him where he was from. He is of Asian background but was born in the U.S. He explained this to his class, but they did not seem to accept this explanation. Later in the semester, the students explained that there was something different about his gestures that made him appear to be foreign-born and therefore not a native speaker of English. This reaction was expressed by most of the students regardless of their own country of origin. Sometimes this feedback is needed.

Newly-hired NNES teachers may need to be aware if some aspect of their body language seems non-American to students, or if they need to work on accent reduction. Dress can sometimes set a teacher apart. Students are curious observers and spend hours in the classroom with the teacher each week. They can easily recognize what is different but may not be able to articulate why something seems different to them. If a NNES teacher shares students with another instructor, the other instructor might be able to discuss diplomatically with them the perceived differences and pass along this information to the NNES teacher.

GG: NNES teachers should make their students aware of their nonnative status. They should engage their students in discussions about where they think their teachers are from or have them guess their teachers' home languages. Other discussion questions could focus on whether students know how many dialects of English are represented in the faculty, and whether they are aware of the many different varieties of English spoken around the world. Then teachers should tell their students about their professional training as ESL and EFL teachers and, if relevant, share information about their teaching experience (e.g., places of work and teaching assignments) and about the many advantages of having NNES instructors.

Some of the advantages include but are not limited to the following:

1. NNES teachers can be role models. Students can see that it is possible to become good English speakers, readers, and writers, regardless of how difficult the language is for them currently.

2. NNES teachers can often predict where their students will encounter grammatical difficulties and have an in-depth understanding of how to explain the intricacies of grammatical points.

3. Students won't offend NNES teachers if they tell them what they do not like or do not understand about the U.S. For example, the NNES teachers may begin the discussion by admitting their own confusion about the U.S. measurement system with its Fahrenheit temperatures, distances measured in miles, and size calibrated in inches.

4. Most ESL learners are aware that they will never sound like native speakers of English. The NNES teacher, thus, serves as a more realistic model, having achieved a high level of intelligibility in producing the sounds, rhythm, and intonation patterns of English.

5. NNES teachers have an excellent understanding of acculturation because they have been through the process themselves.

Question 4: What role, if any, should MA TESOL programs play in the placement, mentoring, and professional development of NNES professionals?

KF: MA TESOL programs should provide certain core courses in grammar and curriculum. Every MA TESOL program should offer a practicum course. If possible, students should have opportunities to teach or observe other teachers in a variety of academic settings, for example, in an IEP, in a community college ESL program, or in a high school or elementary school class. Placement is much easier for MA candidates who have done in-class teaching prior to their graduation from an MA TESOL program.

Additionally, MA TESOL program faculty should be aware that NNES teachers may need some extra information about areas such as what to expect the first year on the job and what the norms are for the U.S. classroom. The practicum course, much like other MA TESOL courses, could provide NNES teachers with information in these areas. Moreover, MA TESOL programs should encourage students to become members of TESOL and their state's TESOL affiliate (e.g., CATESOL) and to attend conferences; further, they should make attendance at such conferences part of the curriculum. Finally, MA TESOL programs should encourage students to become members and participate in interest groups that serve their specific needs (e.g., Nonnative English Speakers in TESOL; Nonnative Language Educators in CATESOL).

As for placement, most ESL programs need part-time teachers year-round. MA TESOL program coordinators should have a list of local programs so students can be hired either after they have received their degree or after they have completed the majority of their courses. Some programs are able to hire students while they are writing their MA theses or are studying for their comprehensive exams.

GG: Faculty in MA TESOL programs should discuss the job search process with their NNES students and help them develop realistic expectations. Ideally, there needs to be a very open channel of communication between the practicum supervisor and the mentor teachers and ESL program administrators directly in charge of the NNES teacher's field experience. Assuming the practicum supervisor receives feedback on the NNES teacher's skills, the supervisor can then serve as a conduit for providing feedback (in a non-threatening way) about which skills the teacher needs to "polish" to be more competitive in the job market. The practicum supervisor should be sensitive to the fears and reactions of program administrators and teachers who are reluctant to mentor a NNES student in their program. If the practicum supervisor can provide the host environment with clear expectations and requirements for the student teacher, the reluctance to work with a NNES student can be dramatically reduced. Another suggestion is for the MA TESOL program to have a placement service for its MA candidates that is attuned to the special profile of its NNES professionals.

Question 5: What are some recommended interviewing strategies for NNES professionals? What questions would you encourage them to ask of their potential employers?

KF: NNESs, even more than other job candidates, should practice the interview process before going to the actual interview. They should make up a list of questions and then ask professors and fellow students to suggest more; they should also have classmates or colleagues ask them the questions several times. NNES job candidates may wish to audiotape themselves and listen to their answers. If they are brave, they could have a colleague give them feedback on the tape. If job applicants are concerned that their body language makes them appear foreign, they could have their practice interview videotaped. Videotaping may make them more nervous and would certainly involve more effort than setting up an audio-cassette recorder but could be worth the extra effort. Job candidates should also find out about the school or program where they plan to interview via the World Wide Web and from professors and friends. Most Web sites list the basic information about programs and have brief biographies of the faculty.

Once NNES candidates have identified specific schools or programs in which they hope to find employment, they should call and request a brochure about the program. The brochure information revealed during an interview can impress the interviewers with the candidate's knowledge of the program and school. The NNES candidate can also prepare a few informed questions concerning areas such as the curriculum and the process of student assessment and placement. Finally, the NNES candidate should be ready to inquire as to which classes the full-time instructors would be expected to teach. If this is a full-time job, job candidates should also ask if there are other NNES professionals who have full-time status. These questions will make job candidates look knowledgeable about the program and how it is administered and will emphasize their sincere interest in teaching in the program.

If the job is part-time, probably fewer risks are involved and the NNES candidate may have fewer questions. Job candidates should ask whether benefits are an option for part-time faculty and whether office space or meeting rooms are available. Are there department meetings and is attendance open to part-time faculty? Attending such meetings would be a good way to meet the full-time faculty who will surely be on the next full-time hiring committee.

GG: What follows is a list of questions for NNES professionals to ask at interviews. Specifically, NNES professionals should ask the hiring committee or administrators:

1. Is there an established mentoring system for all new hires?
2. What is the mission and vision of the program?
3. Is there a process to ensure a timely and appropriate response to classroom problems?
4. What is the ratio of native English-speaking (NES) teachers and NNES teachers in the program? What is the program's interest in understanding the NNES's role within the program?
5. What are the evaluation procedures for new hires?
6. What means are available to help NNES teachers learn from their new environment and contribute to the program as representatives from another culture?
7. What kinds of professional development activities are available?

Question 6: What factors, if any, should NNES professionals consider in accepting or declining a job offer?

GG: One of the main factors that NNES professionals should consider in accepting or declining a job offer is the level of support for new teachers and the manner of evaluation. If it becomes clear that teachers have just one shot at succeeding but will not receive adequate support to be successful, they should not put themselves into a disastrous situation, no matter how much they want to get an "American experience." Another factor to consider is the type and extent of communication between the new hire and the administration or other teachers. If there is little day-to-day interaction, teachers may feel isolated or insecure. Above all, teachers should consider the areas that are important to them in their professional lives. For some, this may involve fitting in with the rest of the team; for others, opportunities for professional development may be more important.

KF: NNES professionals should consider whether they would feel comfortable in a specific setting. NNES professionals from an urban area may not be ready to accept a job in a small American college town. However, there are many factors to consider at the beginning of one's career. One of them is the importance of getting that first full-time offer. Other questions job candidates may want to ask include the following:

1. How many preparations will there be in one semester?
2. How much extra-curricular activity is required?
3. How many students are in a class?
4. From which countries are the students in the program?
5. What is the degree of literacy of the incoming students?

NNES job candidates may wish to ask if they will be expected to recruit students from their language or ethnic background for the program. Candidates should also consider their own strengths. If the job offer is to teach accent reduction and they are self-conscious about their own accent, then the job may not be the right one for them. They need to ask about the salary and working conditions. Some private ESL companies expect a great deal of work for a relatively low hourly wage. Administrators and hiring committees are trying to find and hire the best "fit" for the program, but job candidates should remember that if they feel uncomfortable during the hiring process, it may be a signal that the job would not work out. If offered the job, perhaps they should decline and continue to explore other options.

Conclusion

The awareness of diversity in today's educational environment and the desire of most ESL professionals to employ fair hiring practices make today's job market a good one for NNES teachers. Getting hired, however, is only one part of the career process. Becoming acclimated to the program and the students, learning and growing on the job, and *enjoying* one's chosen profession are all important factors for success.

Program administrators can assist NNES teachers by being aware of the needs of nonnative English speakers and by implementing procedures for feedback and information exchange. NNES teachers need to be aware of the perceptions held by students and the school's administration and should make an effort to break down any barriers that stand in the way of effective communication. NNES teachers are good role models both for the students in the ESL program and for colleagues in the field. Both groups have much to gain when there is a conscious attempt to have a dialogue about differences and what we all can share.

Authors

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The
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Using Fairy Tales to Develop Reading and Writing Skills

Fairy tales can be defined as narratives that contain improbable events, scenes, and characters and that often convey a whimsical, satirical, or moralistic theme (Baynton, 1996). These tales, traditionally written or told for the amusement of children, invite readers to reflect on the origin of certain social practices and issues and even to question their current validity.

Because they draw on readers' imagination and emotions, fairy tales provide useful tools that allow students to freely express their opinions on themes related to human nature. In addition, because the characters in these tales are not the kind of people we meet daily, students can easily debate characters' decisions, either justifying, rejecting, or sympathizing with them (Wright, 1996). Fairy tales also provide a fertile environment for teachers to present both narrative structure and key elements such as plot, setting, characters, the organization of events, and the overall message of the story. Thus, fairy tales offer readers a richness of theme and language that is perfectly suited to students of English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL).

The following article presents a framework for the exploitation of fairy tales in EFL and ESL courses. Specifically, it discusses (a) ways to enhance student comprehension of this genre (Swales, 1990) and (b) ways to use fairy tales as a trigger for subsequent written work. The framework and accompanying activities are based on the belief that exploring a text in detail requires focusing on certain key elements that students can then use to develop their own writing.

Characterization of the Genre and Pedagogical Implications

With an abundance of fairy tales to choose from, text selection is not a complex matter. Some stories we have used with upper-intermediate students are *Pinocchio, Cinderella, Beauty and the Beast, The Ugly Duckling,* and *Snow White*. These tales reflect folk wisdom and have universal appeal. From a rhetorical perspective, they have a straightforward narrative style, with conventionalized beginnings and endings and a persuasive aim. Linguistically, they offer many examples of formulaic language, using such phrases as "once upon a time" and "happily ever after." Characters are simply defined and are often archetypal. Typical themes include the confrontation of positive versus negative forces (with plenty of instances of good overcoming evil), the heroic virtues of justice, and the values or anti-values that are present in society. Key events are introduced to disrupt the equilibrium of ordinary, expected circumstances, to provoke the reader's response in an attempt to reinstate a sense of balance (Ochs, 1997).

The lexical, conceptual, and cultural dimensions of a fairy tale need to be made comprehensible to students so that there is room for the rediscovery—or sometimes the first discovery—of the pleasures of reading classics and of their importance and function in our lives. Though fairy tales have particular appeal to children, they are also well-suited for adults, who already have the background knowledge and fairy tale schema needed to interpret the language of the story. This familiarity with the themes and the traditional discourse format facilitates students' transition from reading to writing practice.

The tasks presented below draw on the accepted view that students should become aware of rhetorical conventions and lexical items in text before applying a similar model to their own written work. Our approach is consistent with Schmidt's (1994) noticing hypothesis, which states that "noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake for learning" (p. 17).

Possibilities for Text Analysis

The selection of appropriate fairy tales will depend on the course objectives and the students' proficiency levels, but it is always advisable to use engaging, relatively short texts, with topics that generate debate. For example, "The Ugly Duckling" may be an appropriate text as it questions the traditional concepts of beauty. "Little Red Riding Hood" is also an interesting text that presents the concepts of good and evil forces. Before launching into a specific fairy tale, a pre-reading activity involving fairly tales in general will heighten student interest in the genre and ease student entry into subsequent, more analytical tasks. One possibility is to have students discuss topics such as the following: (a) fairy tales they like the most or hate the most, (b) favorite fairy tale character(s), and (c) the most meaningful fairy tale. Questions that guide the reading and facilitate comprehension of a specific fairy tale can follow. For example, after being assigned to read a fairy tale, students can work in groups to find answers to the questions below, thus encouraging them to reconstruct the story.

1. What is the story about?
2. What is the plot and how is it developed?
3. How does this story compare with other fairy stories you know?
4. On which issues does the author make us reflect?

After this preliminary analysis, students' attention can be directed to the following useful analytical categories (Labov as cited in Brumfit & Carter, 1986):

1. Abstract—This involves a summary of what follows and answers the implied question: What's all this about? It is an optional category, not present in all stories.

2. Orientation or Exposition—This part of the story sets the scene and introduces the characters. It answers the questions: Who? When? What? Where?

3. Complication—This part of the story involves a conflict occurring, a problem appearing, or the lives of the characters being complicated in some way. It poses the question: What course of action is required?

4. Climax—This is the point where suspense is highest and matters are most threatening. It answers the question: What is the turning point in the story?

5. Resolution—This is where the author introduces a solution for the complication. It may not be a happy one; instead, the story may end in a surprising and unexpected way with a twist in the tale. It answers the questions: How did the story end? How was the conflict resolved?

6. Evaluation or Coda—This, in some stories, appears in a moral or in the writer's own personal evaluation of the events described. It answers the question: What is the point or the lesson of the story? It is another optional category.

The best way for students to understand these categories is to ask them to collaboratively analyze the story using this framework. Table 1 shows a student-generated sample[1] that illustrates how students can use the framework to arrive at a better understanding of the fairy tale.

Table 1
Sample: The Pied Piper

Category	*Illustration*
Orientation	Where? The town of Hamelin When? Unspecified time in the past Who? The happy people that lived there
Complication	Rats appeared and multiplied. The town Mayor was threatened by the townspeople. The Pied Piper appeared and helped the Mayor kill the rats.
Climax	The Pied Piper wanted to collect his money but was deceived. He played his pipe and all the children disappeared with him.
Evaluation	Let us all, dear reader, think well before we make promises we do not plan to keep. If, in our greed, we give less than we promised, we may get more than we bargain for.

Once this initial stage has been covered, a further in-depth analysis can evolve around the following aspects:

Analyzing characters. One of the main assets of fairy tales is that they often contain illustrations that vividly depict the tale's characters. Readers can use these visual clues to build an initial or general impression, which then gains depth through the characters' words, actions, and choices. Students can also be encouraged to gather clues by noticing what people are wearing, what kind of talk is taking place, and what places are mentioned. These inferential tasks heighten students' awareness and promote their critical thinking.

A good starting point is to have students work in groups, individually, or with the whole class and make a list of the characters that appear in a fairy tale. These characters can then be labeled using criteria such as the following: (a) nasty or evil, (b) naïve or innocent, (c) clever or smart, (d) friendly or honest, (e) heroic or unheroic, (f) central or most important. Our students' impressions of characters are built up through the many different events encountered in a story. This cumulative process may help them to understand how the character changes. For example, since students probably already know *Cinderella* and *Little Red Riding Hood*, the main characters' names will evoke certain responses and feelings. Students can therefore make an initial list of their characteristics. Then, as they read and analyze the story they can notice how events shape character development and how the character's speech reveals personality.

This method allows students a sense of involvement with the characters while fostering their descriptive and interpretative skills. It also gives them a basis for devising their own protagonists and antagonists when producing a similar written piece (see suggested activities below). For example, they can describe an event that impacts a character's development or they can reveal a character's personality by creating a catchphrase or manner of speaking.

Comparing and explaining characters. After students develop their ability to analyze characters, they can begin to compare them. Some of the following questions can be applied to different characters in the same story:

1. What do they do?
2. What is done to them?
3. What do they say?
4. What do they think or feel?
5. What do they look like?
6. Where do they live?

Literature is rich with characters evoking complex responses—from the hero who we think is a bit too perfect to the bully whom we end up pitying. As students form their views, they can share them in a whole class discussion about a particular character and compare these views with other students' responses. In this fashion, students can learn to justify their views through reference to the text.

Setting. Some guidance should be offered so students realize how important the relations of time and space are in story development. For instance, if *Little Red Riding Hood* were set in a large city such as New York instead of in a forest, important changes would ensue: The protagonist would likely wear a leather jacket, sport a punk hairdo, and ride a motorcycle. As a result of these changes, the development of events and the function of the text would also change.

The choice of setting also influences the use of certain techniques such as personification and the inclusion of unreal characters like the fairy godmother in *Cinderella* or the wolf in *Little Red Riding Hood*. Another feature that contributes to the temporal setting of the story is the use of certain formulaic utterances such as "once upon a time," "there was once a…," and "they lived happily ever after." These linguistic clues help the reader construct a fantasy image filled with pictures of castles, magic objects, princes and princesses, and faraway lands. Readers who are aware of such techniques are equipped with a repertoire of options that they can use when discussing contemporary issues as well as when creating traditional stories set in the past.

Message. The above-described analysis of characters, plot, and setting will enhance readers' ability to interpret fairy tales and will eventually lead them to draw conclusions about the overall message of the story. In addition to interpreting the story's moral, students can explore archetypal characters and what they represent as well as modern day concerns such as gender issues, power and control issues, and ethical values. For example, in *The Ugly Duckling* and *Beauty and the Beast*, the importance of beauty—valued highly in today's world—is minimized, conveying a significant message to a society that tends to maximize it. The story's imagery and symbolism provide another dimension for analysis. For instance, students can be led to discover that the apple that Snow White is offered stands for temptation and its consequences, and that her stepmother's mirror represents madness and obsession.

Linguistic and structural features. Analysis of the story should not be restricted to the meaning of fairy tales, but should be extended to their structural properties as well. Questions can be addressed to the unraveling of the conventional form of the story or macrostructure (Dijk, 1980; Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). This term, macrostructure, refers to the organization of the global content, and hence of the global coherence, of a text. Detecting the themes and sub-themes and outlining the story schema contribute to the consolidation of the analytical and interpretative dimensions of this narrative genre.

To incorporate a more detailed linguistic perspective, teaching-learning objectives can include aspects related to word-formation, recurring syntactic patterns, cohesive markers, and formulaic language. An in-depth linguistic analysis should be emphasized throughout the study of the fairy tale. Such study can focus on noticing typical beginnings and endings, word repetition, word order, and the rhetorical features or macrostructures that are recurrent in this specific genre.

By asking students to move beyond the text and use their imagination to create new storylines for their favorite characters, we open up unlimited writing possibilities. Below is a list of creative writing activities that we have assigned students to do after working with fairy tales. These activities are meant to engage students in writing about stimulating and challenging topics. The overall objective is to provide a framework for the development of the students´ imagination, while emphasizing certain fundamental language points such as the use of pronouns and tenses in narratives. As a secondary objective, we also strive to have students broaden their active vocabulary and notice the importance of contextualization in storytelling.

Guided writing using vocabulary from a story. Students are given a list of lexical items, some belonging to the original story and others that have nothing to do with it. For instance, the following is a sample from *Little Red Riding Hood*: girl, woods, flowers, wolf, grandmother, flying saucer, moon. Students are then asked to write a story using all the words.

An upside-down story. Students are invited to rewrite any of their favorite stories by altering the temporal or spatial setting, or by changing the description of a character. For example, the main character from *Beauty and the Beast* is no longer a beautiful girl but an ugly witch, *Sleeping Beauty* is a yoga and meditation practitioner, or the *Three Little Pigs* live in an igloo. The wolf in *Little Red Riding Hood* can be portrayed as kind and friendly and the little girl as mean and aggressive. Anything that alters the original story will provide great results.

Enlarging the story. Another possibility is to ask students to write a new ending for any of their favorite children's classics. Haven't you always wondered what happens after Cinderella marries the Prince? Or what happens to the dwarfs that helped Snow White?

A mosaic story. An alternative is to ask students to list some of the most outstanding characters from different fairy tales and, keeping their physical and psychological traits, create a new story that contains these characters. As a suggested activity for an end-of-term assignment, they can decide on a suitable situation, a conflict, and a resolution and involve the different characters they have analyzed throughout the term.

Poetry. Students can write a poem based on children's classic stories. For example, they can use the same content and rearrange it in the shape of a poem, limerick, or haiku.

Essay writing. Questions can be provided to solicit student opinions on topics from children's literature. For example, every classic story like *Snow White* or *The Princess and the Pea* has a happy ending in which all problems are resolved. A way to get students to explore this pattern in writing would be to pose the following question: What do you think of stories that hide reality, creating a world different than ours? Write an essay discussing this topic.

In the Appendix we have included selected writing samples that illustrate our students' creativity and hard work. These stories can be described as contemporary fiction rooted in students' own experiences. Although the student-produced stories have elements that can be found in fairy tales, the students have incorporated topical issues and other new ingredients, for example, an urban context that reflects their own representation of the world. Giving students this creative opportunity adds meaning and a sense of power to their lives and provides them with the enjoyment of writing and expressing a deep or even moral message. This type of writing activity can be a far more rewarding experience than simply writing a paper on an assigned topic, a chore that is often devoid of emotion. As we can see from the samples enclosed, after working with fairy tales students can give the stories a modern, surreal interpretation—thereby promoting their own deeper understanding of the story. At the same time, they acquire language structures, vocabulary that is appropriate to the genre, and idiomatic phrases.

Concluding Comments

In sum, fairy tales are an excellent vehicle for enhancing language and literacy development. Following the framework we propose, students first explore both the structure and content of the texts as a whole. They are then given the opportunity to demonstrate their world knowledge and creativity by providing a new story based on the now familiar tale. Because fairy tales are archetypal and anonymous, they particularly lend themselves to such reinterpretation and even reinvention without losing their original character. The final student products are always a great pleasure to read as they are inevitably the result of great effort and imagination. It is our hope that these ideas work as well in your EFL and ESL classes as they have in ours.

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Endnote

[1] Sample was cooperatively written by upper-intermediate students: María Verónica Rojas, María Estela Aubone, and Adrián González. Reproduced with permission.

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Appendix

Sample Fairy Tales

Note: Students' lexical and conceptual choices have been kept to reproduce the authors´ voices, however minimal editorial revision has been done. All student samples are used with permission.

Sample 1

THREE LITTLE PIGS

by María Estela Aubone

Once upon a time there were three little pigs who went out into the big world to build their homes and seek their fortunes.

The first little pig was very concerned about the environment, so he built himself a house of straw. Then off he went down the road to see how his brothers were getting along. As he walked, he played his flute, rehearsing the part he had to play at the church Christmas concert.

The second little pig also built an environmentally friendly house, not because he cared for Mother Nature but because he was very lazy. He had built a quick and easy house of sticks. Then he started sawing away at his violin, which he used to beg for money in the streets. He met his brother the flautist and off they danced and played down the road to see how their brother was getting along.

The third little pig constructed his house of bricks. He had not only built himself a splendid residence, but also a modern housing estate, for he was the laziest of the three brothers and wanted to live off the rental of his properties and had no regard for the conservationists who were fighting to stop the forest from being built on.

After spending a lovely evening together, the pigs returned to their own homes, just to find out that their little houses had been blown down by the wolf who lived in the woods nearby. They quickly ran to their brother's house expecting him to put them up. Instead, the third pig offered them two of his newly built cottages for rent. The homeless little pigs found themselves forced to accept and thus they became their brother's first tenants.

When the landlord pig came into his house, the wolf was waiting for him. They shook hands and according to what they had previously arranged, the hog paid the wolf for having blown down his brother's huts. Then he offered the hairy animal a job as managing director of his properties. The ex pork-eater accepted immediately and they stayed up the whole night celebrating the beginning of their new business relationship.

Sample 2

PINOCCHIO

by Adriana Pérez

She was a beautiful girl named Amy, the first and only child of a young couple. Her mother had died when Amy was a baby. Her father remarried Mary when Amy was four. They lived in a small town with Mary's father, whose name was Gepetto. He was a very sweet old man and despite his age, he still worked as a carpenter.

Gepetto loved Amy as if she were his granddaughter. She was always sad and lonely because she didn't have any friends. So one day he made a marvelous puppet for her and Amy called it Pinocchio. But she wanted Pinocchio to be alive so that it could do everything she order it. Amy went to see a witch and he came to life through evil magic.

Although Amy looked like an innocent girl, she was bad. She hated everyone. Pinocchio really loved her and did everything she wanted. One day Amy told him that she wanted him to kill Gepetto because she hated Mary—her stepmother—and she wanted her to suffer. In fact, she was very jealous. She thought that her father had stopped loving her when he married Mary. But Pinocchio told her that she was wrong. He said that everybody loved her. Amy couldn't understand why she had those horrible feelings and she asked Pinocchio to help her change her behavior.

Sample 3

THE PRINCE'S DESTINY

by Adrián González

Once upon a time there was a prince who was in love with a girl called Little Red Riding Hood. One day, she was so very lucky that she was invited to visit the Royal Castle.

The king told the prince that the girl should pass a test to marry him. She had to sleep over in the castle and feel a pea through one hundred mattresses. The prince decided to put his bawling ball under the mattresses so that Little Red Riding Hood could feel it. But he made a mistake: he told a friend about his plan. Unluckily, his friend was a very famous burglar who stole the ball before Little Red Riding Hood went to bed.

The following day, when the girl told the King that she had slept perfectly well, he kicked her out of the castle. The prince felt very sad, but Little Red Riding Hood was happy because then she was free from him and she could marry her secret love. She has loved somebody else for a long time.

Many years went by…Little Red Riding Hood married the wolf and the Prince had to marry an ugly girl who was able to feel the pea. Both couples lived happily for ever, but the Prince could never forget Little Red Riding Hood.

Sample 4

THE UGLY DUCKLING

by Graciela Gonzalorena

Once upon a time there was a female duck who was hatching out some eggs. At first she was happy, but then she realized that one of the eggs was bigger than the rest. A few days went by and all the baby ducks came out of their eggs. Mummy Duck was astonished. There was a really different duck! All the brothers Duck were waiting for a yellow sibling but It was completely different from its brothers. That's why Mummy Duck thought he wasn't her son. Every animal on the farm laughed at him and they called him The Ugly Duckling. Not even his mother liked him. She was so cruel and on several occasions she treated him like a servant.

When he grew up and was strong enough, he decided to do something about that way this situation. One night he was walking alone near the lake thinking about what to do with his life when a cow shouted: "The Ugly Duckling is here!" Ugly Duckling turned around and shot the cow in the head. Consequently he was sent to prison. But no animal, not even his mother, was brave enough to call him that way. The Ugly Duckling is now famous for his book "How to raise your self-esteem" and signs copies from jail.

Sample 5

NEVER TRUST A SWEET FACE

by María Verónica Rojas

Cinderella was a beautiful girl who lived with her stepmother and stepsisters. At first, thy forced her to do all the housework, but she had such a strong character that she told them it wasn't fair. As time passed, the stepmother and stepsisters became kind and gentle and helped Cinderella.

One day, the prince sent invitations for a dance to all the girls in the kingdom. The stepsisters bought dresses, jewels and perfumes, but poor Cinderella couldn't afford them. When they left she started crying in the kitchen. All of a sudden, a fairy godmother appeared and turned

Cinderella into a Princess. She also turned a pumpkin into a splendid carriage. But the fairy godmother advised Cinderella to return home before midnight because at that time the spell would break.

When Cinderella arrived at the dance, everyone stared at her wondering who she was. The Prince felt she was the girl he had been looking for. Cinderella was interested in the Prince's richness, not in him. As it was nearly midnight, she started running and lost one shoe. The Prince found it and decided that the girl who fitted it would be his wife. At last, he found Cinderella. They got married and after a month she killed him She has sent some postcards from Cancun where she is on her second honeymoon.

Sample 6

THE OVER-SLEEPING BEAUTY

by María Angélica Oyarzo

Some years ago in England, there were a king and a queen who loved each other but didn't have a child. So they decided to adopt one on the condition that if they did that, they would lose everything they owned. A few months later, they were living in a small house near the palace. The little child came and it was a beautiful girl. They called her Marianne, and her parents were very happy! She grew up very quickly and her parents loved her a lot. But Marianne had a problem: she loved to sleep. She spent all day and every day in her room, sleeping and dreaming of a young man who used to tell her beautiful words. She didn't like to study, play with other children or watch TV. She just wanted to sleep and nothing else. What's more, she never got out of her room.

When Marianne was fifteen, her parents came into her room and invited her to a party, but she immediately refused. They forced her to go with them. She was very beautiful and all young men looked at her. But she was only thinking about a place to relax, and as soon as she found a comfortable sofa, she fell asleep.

As Marianne was dreaming about a good-looking man who was telling her romantic words and kissing her, something unexpected happened. Someone started to pull her arm and was trying to wake her up. When she opened her eyes, she saw a very young man by her side. He eventually invited her to dance. She agreed and it was love at first sight. They couldn't avoid falling in love. Her dream came true and a few months later, they got married. But it was only a dream. Everything had only happened in her imagination.

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JUDY GILBERT
Consultant

Six Pronunciation Priorities for the Beginning Student[1]

Instruction in pronunciation should begin early in the language-learning process. If pronunciation instruction is postponed, students frequently develope habits that must be undone. Another reason to start early is because if students are not intelligible, they may become discouraged when they try to use what they have learned in class in any practical situation. As a result, they may give up trying—making them even harder to teach. On the other hand, beginners have so much to learn that the time available for pronunciation work is apt to be quite limited. Also, to attempt everything in the beginning is to risk wasting the whole effort because students can only deal with a limited number of challenges at one time. When we cut down the workload, we increase the likelihood of real learning.

Since we as teachers should do something to address students' pronunciation needs, but cannot do everything, we must choose which aspects of pronunciation are immediately important and which should be left for later work. Beginning students of English need to work on the most basic or "core" elements of the spoken language before they are asked to deal with less essential aspects. Core elements are those aspects of pronunciation most necessary for intelligibility. This article summarizes a core curriculum addressing six priority topics (Bolinger, 1986; Dalton, & Seidlhofer, 1994; Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Jenkins, 2000; McNerney & Mendelsohn, 1992): (a) core vowels—decoding the printed language; (b) core consonants—making sound distinctions that convey information about grammar; (c) syllables—using the rhythmic effect of the right number of syllables; (d) linking—joining the words in a thought group; (e) word stress—using strong (long) and weak (short) syllables to make the word clear, and (f) emphasis—using intonation to make clear which is the most important word.

Core Vowels

One of the most urgent skills needed for beginning students is the ability to decode the printed language. Decoding means to convert the printed letter into its appropriate sound (spelling to pronunciation). This is an essential early skill for learning English because students need to be able to use printed material outside of class in order to reinforce what they have been taught; if they can decode, they can review pronunciation on their own. The traditional way to teach spelling to English speaking children is to give them a rule such as, "A vowel sounds like its name if there is a silent letter 'e' at the end of the word." Alternatively, they are asked to "sound out the letters." But these approaches are not very effective for nonnative speakers because (a) they don't know how to pronounce words so they don't know when final "e" is silent, and (b) their mental inventory of sounds derived from their first language (L1) is not the same as the sound inventory required for English, so they may not be able to "sound out" letters accurately, especially vowels (e.g., *cat*). This particular vowel sound does not exist in many other languages. Because beginning students may not know when an "e" is silent, or may not know the common vowel sounds, it is important to give beginners, as early as possible, some reasonably reliable decoding rules especially adapted for second language learners.

The first necessity is to teach the names of the letters in the alphabet. This is doubly important because, aside from the value of decoding print, learning to spell aloud is a good way to correct a communication breakdown. But spelling aloud depends on being able to say the names of the letters. The problem is that most teachers think they taught the alphabet on the first day of study of a new language and therefore don't need to do anything more. But did students actually learn how to pronounce the letters? Think of José, who, if required to spell his name aloud might well say "G - O - S - A."

After learning the names of the alphabet letters well enough to be able to spell aloud easily, students need practical rules to deal with the complexity of English vowel spellings. Vowels are usually taught by comparing vowels that are near each other in tongue placement and consequently tend to be confused (e.g., *ship/sheep)*. But for the purpose of helping students learn to decode, it is more efficient to teach these sounds according to the two ways the letter is usually pronounced. Below are two core rules for decoding vowels that work reasonably well, despite many exceptions (Gilbert, 2001). They are based on percentages of time these spellings are pronounced with these sounds (Carney, 1994).[2]

Alphabet vowels. The first rule (see Figure 1) deals with *alphabet vowels* (i.e., those vowels pronounced like the name of the letter in the alphabet). Alphabet vowels all have a characteristic shift of the tongue upward while they are being said. This shift produces an off-glide sound and also means that A, E, and I end with the lips spread into a "smile" (shown with the superscript ^{y}) and the vowels O and U end with the lips rounded. (shown with the superscript ^{w}). Many languages have only pure vowels (with no change in the position of the tongue), so the superscript can help remind students of this special English shift of the tongue. Presenting vowels in this two-way distinction (with or without the off-glide) is helpful for beginning students.

If there are two vowel letters in a short word (or strong syllable), the first vowel sounds like its "alphabet name."

A^y	E^y	I^y	O^w	U^w
cake	tea	ice	cone	lute
remain	repeat	arrive	soapy	excuse

Figure 1. *Alphabet vowels and the two vowel rule.*

Relative vowels. The second rule (see Figure 2) has to do with *relative vowels*. These vowel sounds are often called "short vowels." However, when the terms *short* and *long* are used for this purpose, they tend to be confusing since vowel length also applies to the very important difference between *stressed* and *de-stressed* vowels (as explained in Word Stress below). To avoid this confusion, the term relative is used here to show that this particular pronunciation is related to, but different from, the alphabet pronunciation of the same letter. Actually, the relative vowel sounds are the most common pronunciation of the vowel letters, but they are more challenging to learn. Therefore, the alphabet vowels should be taught first.

If there is only one vowel letter in a short word (or strong syllable), it sounds like a "relative" of the alphabet vowel.

A	E	I	O	U
had	bed	his	hot	sun
thank	pencil	listen	comic	summer

Figure 2: *Relative vowels and the one vowel rule.*

Once students are comfortable with these two rules, they can be provided with additional practice comparing alphabet vowels and relative vowels, as illustrated in Figure 3:[3] This list does not cover all the vowel sounds of English, but these 11 vowels, plus *schwa* (discussed below in Word Stress) are *core vowels* and must be mastered before other complications are added.

Alphabet Vowels		**Relative Vowels**	
$\mathbf{A}^y$	ate made	**A**	at mad
$\mathbf{E}^y$	beat teen	**E**	bet ten
$\mathbf{I}^y$	kite time	**I**	kit Tim
$\mathbf{O}^w$	load note	**O**	lot not
$\mathbf{U}^w$	cute assume	**U**	cut sum

Figure 3. *Student practice comparing alphabet vowels and relative vowels.*

Core Consonants

When time is limited for teaching consonants, and for pronunciation lessons in general, it is best to focus on consonant sounds at the end of words because grammar signals typically occur at the end of words (*I have money/ I had money*). Many languages do not allow final consonants, or allow a very limited number. This can cause trouble in English when the grammar depends on the presence of a consonant in that final position. Also, many languages do not allow consonant clusters (e.g., *ks* or *ld*) that are quite common in English, especially when the grammar requires an affix (*book/books, smile/smiled*). The most useful distinction to teach is that between a *stop sound* (in which air is stopped coming out, as in the final sound of *but*) and a *continuant sound* (in which the sound can be continued as long as there is air in the lungs, as in *bussss*). Following are examples of grammar endings that depend on the difference between stops and continuants:

Table 1
Grammar Endings Using Stops and Continuants

Grammar Point	*Examples*		
Tense	He's/He'd	I'll/I'd	share/shared
Singular/Plural	book/books	cab/cabs	rat/rats
Question words	where/what		
Positive/Negative	can/can't		

For intelligibility purposes, it doesn't matter how precisely these consonants are articulated, as long as the consonant is present, and the stop-continuant feature is preserved (e.g., *I'll, I'd* or *has/had*). Once students have a firmer control of these core word-final consonants other sounds in other positions can be added—assuming there is time and that the other topics in this core curriculum have been mastered.

Linking Sounds

Linking is a high priority phenomenon because of its effect on listening comprehension. Students learning English tend to expect silence in between words (much like the white space used in the written language) and teachers tend to "help" students by supplying such a separation between words. But in real spoken English, words are run together in order to link thought groups as much as possible (see Figure 4).

We cannnalways → *We cantalways*

Figure 4: *The linking phenomenon.*

This makes it hard for students to recognize the beginnings and endings of words and thus make sense of normal run-together speech. Practice with linking words can be enhanced by having students draw a linking line (a half circle)between the last sound of one word and the beginning sound of the next word (e.g., *call up; turn over; send in*). Of course, if there is a silent "e," the link mark should start with the last consonant letter (e.g., *leave on; change over; line up*). Since silent "e" is very common, practice with such linking can help students to use their ears, not just rely on their eyes.

Work with linking words can assist students not only to process incoming speech but also to manage particularly difficult sounds. Sometimes these sounds are easier to say at the beginning or at the end of a word, depending on the rules of the student's first language. When they are practiced in a drawn-out link with the next word, students for whom they are easier in one position or the other will be helped. For instance, the distinction between /l/ and /d/ can be drilled in the type of exercise demonstrated in Figure 5.

Written Words	**Pronunciation**	**Practice Sentence**
mail it	mailllit	Mail it home.
feel OK	feelllOK	Do you feel OK?
mailed it	maillldit	I've mailed it.
hold everything	hollldeverything	Hold everything!

Figure 5. *Linking exercise practicing the distinction between /l/ and /d/.*

The Number of Syllables

We all learn the rhythm of our L1 in early infancy and thereafter tend to transfer it unconsciously to any new language. For that reason, it is essential to help students become consciously aware of how rhythm is formed by successive syllables. English learners often add or subtract syllables, depending on the rules of their L1. For instance, an L1 that does not allow consonant clusters or final consonants may cause the learner to add a vowel to break up the English clusters (e.g., *sekalah* for school or *gifuto shoppu* for gift shop). On the other hand, a syllable might be dropped completely to avoid a difficult sound or consonant cluster (e.g., *gahment* for government). Whether learners add syllables or delete them, their intelligibility can be severely undermined.

Since rhythm is physical, practice of syllable number should involve tapping a pencil, a foot, or some other physical effort to provide *kinesthetic reinforcement*. (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Gilbert, 1987). See Figure 6 for an example of a rhythm exercise.

Number of Syllables	**Examples**	
1	pịe	mịlk
2	tụnạ	cọffeẹ
3	ẹgg sạlạd	lẹmọnạde
4	tụnạ sạndwịch	Pẹpsị Cọlạ
5	pọtạtọ sạlạd	vạnịllạ ịce crẹam

Figure 6. *Rhythm exercise.*

Word Stress

The basic rhythm for many languages depends on a relatively equal length for all syllables. But clarity in spoken English depends on considerable variations in the length of syllables. Because this kind of rhythm is so foreign to many students, they need a lot of practice hearing and producing syllables of different lengths.

The most important use of syllable lengthening in English is to make stress and emphasis clear to the listener. Word stress patterns are an essential part of communication in the spoken language because English speakers tend to use this information to remember and recognize words (Brown, 1990). As a result, a misplaced stress can cause great confusion, especially if it is accompanied by any other kind of error.

The words *stress* and *de-stress* are probably too abstract for beginners, so the simple rules below use the terms *strong* and *weak.*

Strong syllables. The first set of rules deal with strong syllables, the syllables that are highlighted (i.e., stressed) by making the vowel longer than neighboring vowels (see Figure 7).

Strong Syllable Rules

When you say a word alone:

1. Each word has one strong syllable. [the primary stress]
2. The vowel in a strong syllable is long.

ban **a** na s **o** fa m **u** sic

Figure 7. *Strong syllables.*

Because stress is so important, there are several signals to make the stress pattern clear to the listener, but lengthening is perhaps the most important and probably the easiest to teach kinesthetically (Brown, 1990; Wong, 1987). Use whatever visual or physical means you can think of to reinforce the practice: stretch a rubber band or use some other contrastive hand gesture or write the vowel wider than the others.

Weak syllables. The second set of rules pertain to the weak syllables—those syllables that are de-emphasized. These rules (see Figure 8) explain how the highlighting of strong syllables is enhanced by contrastively shortening neighboring vowels (i.e., *de-stressed*, or *reduced* vowels). The reduced vowel is called *schwa* (e.g., the sound of the first and third vowels in *banana* or the second vowel in *pencil*).

Weak Syllable Rules [schwa ə]

1. Some vowels keep their regular sound, but some vowels get weak.
2. A weak vowel sound is short and not clear.
3. Most weak vowels sound the same.

bənanə sofə musəc

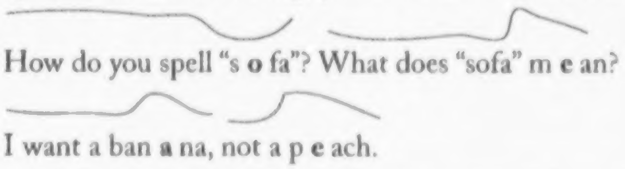
Figure 8. *Weak syllables.*

Although schwa is the most common vowel sound in the spoken language, there is no sign of it in the written language. Because it is so short and purposely obscure, schwa is a serious barrier for listening comprehension. While some learners may never be able to incorporate schwa into their speech, they can all benefit from listening practice with schwa sounds because it helps them to tolerate or adapt to the very frequent presence of this "foreign" phenomenon.

Emphasis

The English speaker chooses which words the listener should notice and highlights them using intonation (timing and melody). Probably the most essential element of this system is the extra lengthening of the vowel at the center of the primary stress (*strong syllable*) of the *focus* (most important) *word.* The purpose of the lengthening is to make it easier for the listener to notice the pitch change that occurs when that particular word is highlighted in a sentence (Gilbert, 1991). In English this signal means "Pay attention to this word!" Other languages may use other signals, perhaps word order or a special particle or word that alerts the listener to notice this part of the message. Because language-specific systems for emphasis are learned so early that they are unconsciously applied to any new language, it is necessary to train students to notice how English uses intonation for marking the focus of thought (the topic.) The rules presented in Figure 9 can help students to understand this phenomenon.

1. Each thought group has one focus that is the most important word.
2. The vowel sound in the strong syllable of that word is extra long.
3. The voice goes up or down on the strong syllable in the focus word.



How do you spell "s **o** fa"? What does "sofa" m **e** an?

I want a ban **a** na, not a p **e** ach.

Figure 9. *Focus rules.*

Summary

Beginning students of English need to work on core elements of the spoken language before they are asked to deal with less essential aspects. These core elements are, in summary: (a) sound distinctions that convey information about decoding and grammar, (b) rhythmic effects of syllable number and variable vowel length, (d) intonational highlighting of the most important words.

Beginning students who acquire these essential aspects of pronunciation can achieve functional comprehensibility without being overwhelmed by the more subtle aspects of the spoken language. At the same time, teachers can integrate these core elements of pronunciation into a multi-skills English as a second language (ESL) course while ensuring that the other language skills also receive adequate attention. A focus on these core elements offers teachers a manageable way to give students instruction and feedback in this vital area, rather than leaving acquisition to chance.

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Endnotes

[1] An earlier version of this article entitled, "What are the teaching priorities for the very low level learner?" appears in the Ask the Experts section of the TESOL Speech and Pronunciation Interest website at http://www.public.iastate.edu/~jrlevis/SPRIS/.

[2] Most spelling books present only one-syllable words, and this is a sensible approach when first presenting the spelling rules for vowels. But students need to be able to decode multisyllabic words. So, as soon as they can understand the meaning of *syllable* and *stress* (or *strong*), include practice with multisyllabic words.

[3] More advanced students can practice with multisyllabic words such as arr**a**ngement, electr**i**city, t**e**levision, Wisc**o**nsin.

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Self-Monitoring, Self-Help, and the Route to Intelligible Speech

Self-monitoring has played an important role in teaching pronunciation since Morley, Robinett, and Stevick (1975) introduced the term and stressed the importance of student involvement in the learning process. The recent surge of interest in teaching pronunciation, the establishment of new teaching priorities, and the many advances in technology invite fresh examination of a topic so crucial to the learner's success. This article deals with self-monitoring in the context of up-to-date pedagogy, provides practical suggestions for teaching self-monitoring, and addresses the following questions: (a) Why is self-monitoring important? (b) What kinds of in-class activities build self-monitoring skills? (c) Which correction strategies have the greatest impact? (d) How can students build self-responsibility outside of class? and (e) How can technology facilitate self-monitoring?

Why Is Self-Monitoring Important?

Current priorities in teaching pronunciation emphasize the need for students to be active learners who take responsibility for their own speech changes. Through *self-monitoring*, or paying close enough attention to their speech to notice and correct their own errors, students can improve their speech intelligibility and effect changes in their everyday communication.

Building Independence

For most students and teachers, the goal for pronunciation training is to achieve intelligible, effective communication rather than native-like speech. Reaching this goal takes longer than the duration of most classes. Equipped with good self-monitoring skills, students can continue to progress on their own after the class is over. They develop what Morley (1979) calls "a sense of personal responsibility for their own learning" (p. 84).

Self-help and autonomy are essential if learners are to improve their day-to-day speech. Although students are ultimately responsible for their own improvement, teachers are responsible for providing them with the concepts and tools for controlling their progress. Instructors can help students build self-monitoring skills gradually through classroom activities, home assignments, and correction strategies that develop self-sufficiency. They can foster student autonomy through audio and video recordings, which allow students to recognize and correct errors that they missed in real time. Through it all, fostering student independence should be foremost in the teacher's mind. As Firth (1992) emphasizes: "Both teaching and feedback should aim at making the students more and more independent of the pronunciation instructor" (p. 216).

Introducing Core Pronunciation Features

Students cannot monitor for everything at once. An important component of teaching self-monitoring is to direct students' attention to specific features that will result in the most improvement in the least amount of time. By dividing the whole of American pronunciation into manageable and prioritized *core* elements, a teacher can point students to the salient features that need attention in their own speech. Self-monitoring is the way that students begin to incorporate these targeted features.

Although core lists may vary slightly (see, e.g., Gilbert, this volume), most emphasize suprasegmentals (stress, rhythm, and intonation) and include clear vowels and difficult consonant sounds. Most new pronunciation texts and programs cover the high priority suprasegmental targets that are likely to improve speech intelligibility, such as word stress, focus words, thought groups, word endings and linking, speech rhythm, and intonation. In addition to having students monitor for core suprasegmental and segmental pronunciation features, teachers should make students aware of the natural gestures and movements that accompany speech and make it easier to understand.

To teach self-monitoring, teachers need firm grounding in these core features. They need to be able to identify them when they hear them and notice when they are missing from their students' speech. Students should not wait until they perfect one target feature before they start self-monitoring for another one. Learning pronunciation is not about perfection but rather about progressive improvement.

What Kinds of In-Class Activities Build Self-Monitoring Skills?

Students develop self-monitoring skills gradually through a progression of classroom activities and home practice. Morley (2000) suggests three levels of speaking practice: imitative, rehearsed, and extemporaneous. Grant (2000) describes a similar progression of controlled practice, intermediate practice, and communicative language use. It takes conscious effort, practice, and time before learners can successfully self-monitor during daily conversation.

Students learn to discover and correct their own errors by starting with small units of speech. Monitoring tasks should be limited to one or two key features, especially in the beginning. For most activities, the instructor or the pronunciation text asks students to listen for features based on the current lesson. However, as students become familiar with their own speech needs, they can also choose personal monitoring targets.

Early Monitoring Activities

Monitoring starts from the beginning, as soon as students gain awareness through imitative practice. Students usually have to listen to a new feature as well as repeat it or say it along with the speaker many times. Morley (1992) suggests "loop practice: 'broken record' practice" (p. xvi) where students practice 20 or more vigorous repetitions of a word or phrase while concentrating on kinesthetic feedback. Students should move on from such imitative speech as soon as they can say the feature independently.

One way students start learning to monitor their own speech is to listen and to mark pronunciation features on text read by the instructor or by a taped speaker. In the task shown in Figure 1, students first listen and then mark pauses and underline *focus words* (i.e., the most prominent word in a thought group) before self-monitoring for these.

I would have stopped at the store /, but I didn't have time.//
She lives across the street / from a large park.//

Figure 1. *Focus words.*

Controlled Practice Activities

The monitoring task in controlled practice is often limited to one or two features. Students usually work with a partner or small group; they self-monitor while reading sentences, paragraphs, or dialogues. Teachers should circulate around the class to provide individual help and remind students to pay attention to their own and to their partner's speech. To make self-monitoring easier, students can mark longer selections before saying them for word stress, focus, or pauses.

In the following example (see Figure 2), students practice "look alike" nouns and verbs. One partner says either the noun or the verb. The other partner says the matching sentence. The monitoring unit is very short—one word, one sentence.

(1) PROduce	They sell produce at the market.
(2) proDUCE	Cars produce a lot of smog.

Figure 2. *Practice with "look-alike" nouns or verbs.*

Similarly, in the next task shown in Figure 3, one participant chooses either sentence "a" or "b," and the partner responds appropriately. The monitoring task is limited—in the first pair of sentences students monitor the compound nouns, and in the second pair of sentences they monitor missing final sounds.

(a) Who lives in the **WHITE** HOUSE? (b) Who lives in the WHITE **HOUSE?**	the President my friend
(a) His big **FEE** amazed me. (b) His big **FEET** amazed me.	How much did he charge? What size shoe does he wear?

Figure 3. *Monitoring exercises.*

Activities such as chants, poetry, and limericks, where students internalize new speech rhythm patterns, can easily be turned into monitoring practice by having students write and practice their own verses or sentences that replicate the rhythm of the model sentences. For example, see Figure 4.

Model Sentences	Jack and JILL went up a HILL. Maya JONES is out of TOWN. Print it OUT before you LEAVE.
Student Response	Take a SEAT and have some TEA.

Figure 4. *Student speech rhythm practice.*

Moto-kinesthetic monitoring. Although self-monitoring depends mainly upon listening carefully for specific pronunciation features, moto-kinesthetic, tactile, and visual modalities can also help foster students' ability to self monitor. Morley (1992) suggests techniques such as whispering practice, slow-motion practice, and strong, slightly exaggerated practice where students feel the muscle movements of articulation.

Activities that build kinesthetic awareness of voiced and voiceless stops can be useful for students who leave off these sounds or articulate them weakly. In the next task, illustrated in Figure 5, students practice short dialogues, holding final stops. They identify and underline the point of articulation for the stop sounds.

CAT BACK	Where's the CAT? She's hiding in BACK.	Lips—gum ridge—throat Lips—gum ridge—throat
BOB TED	What happened to BOB? He's waiting for TED.	Lips—gum ridge—throat Lips—gum ridge—throat
MAP SEAT	Where's the MAP? It's under the SEAT.	Lips—gum ridge—throat Lips—gum ridge—throat

Figure 5. *Student practice of voiced and voiceless stops.*

Controlled listening for errors. To prepare students for discovering and correcting errors in their own speech, they can be asked to listen for errors in selections read by the instructor. In the next examples, shown in Figure 6, students check the word they actually hear, not the word they expect to hear. Following the exercise, students can practice saying the correct version.

I __________ a car wash.	____ need ____ knee
The ________ was fun.	____ hike ____ hi
The ________ on my bill are wrong.	____ charges ____ charge
He __________ his rent on time.	____ paid ____ pay

Figure 6. *Focused listening practice.*

For added challenge, students can listen to a dialogue or several paragraphs with an occasional missing "ed" or final "s" and circle the words with errors. After noting the errors, they can practice the selection, monitoring for these sounds in their own speech.

Intermediate Practice—Guided Activities

In guided speech activities, students self-monitor for one or two features while generating some, but not all, of the language. The responses are limited, often to a sentence or two. In the following task (see Figure 7), students fill in the response and self-monitor for enthusiastic agreement.

Sentence Provided	Student Response
That was a long **WALK.**	__________________ (That **WAS** a long walk.)

Figure 7. *Guided speech activity—student responds.*

Similarly, to practice contrastive stress, students fill in the sentence preceding the response (see Figure 8).

Student Provides	Response Given
______________________ (Let's eat **BEFORE** the movie.)	I'd rather eat **AFTER** the movie.

Figure 8. *Contrastive stress practice.*

Other guided activities include information gaps where partners ask and answer questions about information that one has but the other does not. Students can also self-monitor while generating language from printed information that shows key ideas, such as invitations, business cards, advertisements, a computer web site, or pictures. For example, students may receive business cards and act out a role play, telling each other why the service provided by the business is recommended, exchanging useful information from the cards, and self-monitoring for two pronunciation features at the same time. Similarly, an announcement from a campus or community event may prompt a short talk whereby the student tells the class about the event and self-monitors for focus words, thought groups or pauses, and word stress.

Independent Speaking Practice

Although independent speech activities are an important part of most pronunciation programs, the demands of the assignment, the number of monitoring tasks, and the time and attention devoted to planning and review all need to be adapted to the individual student and classroom. More experienced learners might monitor for two or three suprasegmental features and possibly one or two sounds. Less experienced learners might pay attention to only one or two features at a time, starting with suprasegmentals. When students are concentrating on a new feature such as linking final sounds, they may forget to monitor for more familiar features, such as focus or word stress.

Many pronunciation and speaking-listening texts offer a variety of ideas for independent speech practice. Morley (1992) describes 12 speaking assignments including using visuals (e.g., drawings, photos, charts, and graphs), storytelling, interviews, and topic talks. Students should be clear which features they are self-monitoring for during each activity. Following are some sample speech tasks that require students to self monitor.

1. Students mark a paragraph from a book or article for pronunciation features, read it out loud, and then summarize the paragraph in their own words, speaking without the script.

2. Using movie ads from a newspaper, students announce several films, telling the location, the times, and why the film looks interesting.

3. Students perform a role-play such as the following: Your friend has recommended a restaurant. You want to find out more about it before you take your guest for dinner. One partner calls the restaurant for information such as the price range, the dress, the location, the parking. The other partner answers the phone.

4. Students talk about a familiar topic or personal experience. For example, after they have learned some English proverbs, students can then describe a proverb from their native language.

5. Students discuss or debate a controversial topic such as whether drivers using cell phones should be required to pull off the road while talking.

Suggestions for facilitating self-monitoring during talks. Although the responsibility for self-monitoring rests with the student, teachers can facilitate the process by following these suggestions:

1. Keep talks short for most students. Students can isolate key targets more efficiently when they don't have to produce a long speech. In a large class, often there is not enough time for each person to plan and to give a three-to-five minute talk and to get proper feedback. With beginning or intermediate level students, key errors show up quickly. Even a talk of eight to twelve sentences or one to two minutes can produce ample material for practice and feedback.

2. Have less experienced students and those who are struggling to express ideas clearly prepare and mark a script for key features (e.g., indicating thought group boundaries, underlining focus words, putting dots over stressed syllables, drawing in pitch changes) rather than speak from notes. This helps them to focus on their pronunciation.

3. Give listeners a monitoring job when another student is speaking. Listeners can mark a checklist, or small groups of students can each listen for a different feature and report what they heard.

4. In class, record all talks on audio or video. Students can bring a blank cassette for the first talk and keep all subsequent recordings on the same cassette for a journal of their talks.

5. For further work, have students transcribe their own speech from a tape of their talk after they give it. They can mark corrections and re-tape their improved talk.

Planning and rehearsing a talk. In my experience, only the most skilled students can self-monitor for pronunciation features while giving an extemporaneous talk with little or no planning. Most students improve their monitoring skills by carefully planning and rehearsing their talk, and reviewing it afterward on a video or audio recording. Some suggested procedures follow:

1. After they plan what they are going to say, students should concentrate on the monitoring tasks.
2. Students should rehearse their talk by recording it on a tape recorder, then listening, deciding what they want to change, and re-recording it until they are satisfied.
3. Students deliver better talks after rehearsing from a script where they mark key features such as thought groups, word stress, and focus.
4. If there is time before a major talk, teachers can meet with students to listen to their rehearsal tape and offer suggestions for further improvement.

Variables affecting self-monitoring during independent speech activities. It is hard to predict how much monitoring a student can sustain during a talk or everyday speech. Some monitoring tasks are more difficult than others. As Grant (2000) notes, "What makes pronunciation learning difficult is not simply the pronunciation feature itself but what students are asked to do with the feature" (p. 81). In my experience, students seem to have more difficulty monitoring while formulating abstract ideas about an unfamiliar topic than while delivering a familiar factual talk or telling a personal story about their family. The ability to monitor seems to also diminish with fatigue and stress. Classes vary in size, length, and duration and provide differing amounts of individual feedback needed to teach self-monitoring. Even advanced students with good pronunciation seem to have self-monitoring skills that fluctuate.

The question remains: How much can students self-monitor their pronunciation during a talk, given the pressure of forming ideas, thinking about body language and eye contact, and attending to speech rate, voice, and delivery? Crawford (1987) warns, "The teacher must be cautioned not to have unrealistic expectations about the amount of monitoring a student can do" (p. 114). It can be argued that students improve their monitoring skills more from the rehearsal and the review process than during the presentation itself.

Which Correction Strategies Have the Greatest Impact?

The techniques that instructors use to correct errors can either empower students (i.e., by making them responsible for their own speech changes) or encourage dependency. To foster students' self-help skills, it is better to start by cueing them to discover and correct their own errors rather than to immediately provide the model. In addition to verbal cueing, teachers can use hand movements and humming to elicit the correct response. If the speaker still cannot self correct after cueing, it may be possible to elicit the correction from a classmate. Students are often good at hearing each other's errors, especially if the speaker produces familiar material. Furthermore, when students listen closely to the speech of others, they sharpen their ability to hear missing features in their own speech. See Figure 8 for a summary of cueing techniques.

Cueing Word Stress	S: It's compliCAted! T: On that last word, move the stressed syllable to the beginning of the word. [Or] Try stressing another syllable. [Or]Listen and copy this pattern [hum the pattern with a hand gesture]. HUMhumHUMhum. Now say the word.
Cueing Focus	S: I'll wait for YOU. T: Where did you put the focus in that sentence? [T encourages recall of the pattern used.] S: [Student thinks, rehearses what s/he said], On "you." T: Good monitoring. Now, say the sentence again and focus on the verb. [Or] Move the focus to a different word. Focus on the last important word. [Or] Follow this pattern: hum HUM hum hum. S: I'll WAIT for you. T. Very good! I'll WAIT for you. [Repeat and reinforce the correct response.]
Cueing Thought Groups and Pauses	S: She was LATE for our date. T: Put in a pause and make two thought groups. [Or] Pause after LATE and add another focus word at the end. [Or] Add a pause and give more focus to the last content word. S: She was LATE / for our DATE./ T: Good! She was LATE / for our DATE./ [T reinforces the corrected pronunciation.]
Cueing Thought Groups, Pauses, Focus Words	S: The little dog followed me all the WAY home. T: You need two thought groups. Try again. Pause after "dog" S: The little DOG / followed me all the WAY home. T: Better! Now shift the focus in the last thought group. Follow the rules for the basic focus pattern and give focus to the last important word. S: The little DOG / followed me all the way HOME./

	T: Excellent! The little DOG / followed me all the way HOME./ You are doing a good job of figuring out your errors and correcting them.
Cueing Missing Sounds and Linking	S: We stop at the corner. T: There was a sound missing in that sentence. Can you find it? Go over what you said and find the missing sound. [S. thinks/recalls the sentence. If necessary, T. might replay it.] S: The "ed" at the end of "stopped." T: Good! It's terrific the way you can find your own errors. Now link the "ed" to the next word. S: We stopped at the corner. T: Excellent! We stopped at the corner. [T reinforces the correct production.]

Figure 8. *Examples of cued corrections. T=Teacher, S=Student.*

Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (1996) suggest "generat[ing] an atmosphere in class that encourages self-correction" (p. 350). This includes writing the student's utterance on the board and underlining the mispronounced feature, writing the type of error on the board (e.g., r/l), and posting wall charts around the room that remind students of common errors, such as "intonation," "word stress," or "focus words," "s," "ed," or "r/l." When hearing an error, the teacher can point to the appropriate chart.

The following correction tips help students develop self-monitoring strategies:

1. Reinforce the corrected version by saying it again. After students correct an error, reinforce the corrected version by saying it again.

2. Remind students to accompany the corrected version with hand movements. For example: T: Good! You found your error. Now say it again correctly, tapping for the stressed syllable or using your rubber band. [Or] don't forget to tap and lean forward for the focus word.

3. Only correct the agreed upon target for any given selection. Resist the temptation to correct other errors you may hear.

4. Give students time and space to notice and correct their own mistakes, especially when listening line by line to a recording of their speech. Sometimes if you wait quietly, students will notice an error on their own. Try pausing and asking, "Is there anything else?" and then replaying the line.

5. When you provide a model, make sure the student actually repeats the corrected form. Some students merely nod or say "yes" to indicate that they know what to do.

6. Errors are part of the process. Expect students to move forward and slide back. Their speech will sound improved even when they partially integrate the new features.

7. Congratulate students for finding their own errors. This is a significant sign of progress. Create a supportive atmosphere that builds self-confidence.

How Can Students Build Self-Responsibility Outside of Class?

In order to make optimum progress, students need to work on their own. There are a variety of ways that they can take charge of their own improvement.

Practicing With Text Audio Tapes

Listening and practicing with text audio tapes at home or in a lab is an important technique used to build independence. Students listen for specific features, match their speech to the taped model, and learn to correct their own errors. To use the tapes effectively, students should be encouraged to (a) repeat challenging selections many times, (b) develop a regular schedule for short but frequent practice periods, and (c) practice only as long as they feel alert and can hear their own speech. It is important for students to establish the target feature in class so that they will not practice it incorrectly on their own. Good class preparation and clear monitoring assignments minimize the risk that students will reinforce old speech patterns when practicing.

Transferring Pronunciation to Everyday Speech

To transfer what they have learned in class, students can extend their self-monitoring to real-life situations outside the classroom, including the workplace. Some suggestions follow:

1. Pair students (preferably from different native languages) for a "phone meeting" to talk about a topic or a class lesson.

2. Have students leave a short speaking assignment (a few phrases or sentences) on the instructor's answering machine or in an audio e-mail message. Following this, provide feedback by phone or e-mail.

3. Ask students to note words and phrases that they use frequently or find difficult at work. They can practice the correct pronunciation and then self-monitor while using the target words or phrases at work.

Even beginning students can do an easy transfer activity to practice applying what they have learned in class to a real-life situation. One example is asking for items with a compound name at a market or drugstore, for example "tuna fish," "peanut butter," or "toothpaste," and self-monitoring for word stress. As an extension of such activities, Miller (2000) describes a model for transfer called *Talk Times.* This model begins in class with a role play and continues after class with students communicating on the phone or face-to-face in everyday situations. Students set an individual goal to self-monitor for one or two features. After the Talk Time activity, they assess what happened, rate their comfort level, and plan the next activity. See Figure 9 for sample activities.

Role Play Talk Time	You are planning to take a trip during a busy travel season. Call an airline and inquire about flight availability and prices.
Role Play Talk Time	Your car will be in the shop for a week and you need a rental car. Call car rental agencies and get information about prices and availability.
Role Play Talk Time	You want to join a health club and would like to know about the classes and the fees. Call or visit the local YMCA or other health club and ask for information.

Figure 9. *Role play and Talk Time activities.*

Using Checklists, Contracts, and Journals

Checklists and contracts that aim at specific goals can build independence by focusing a student's attention on practicing self-observation and self-assessment and on setting priorities. Acton (1984) advocates contract learning. After one-on-one negotiation with the instructor, students sign contracts committing to the changes they wish to make in their pronunciation and to how and where they will implement these changes.

Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (1996) provide a checklist of suprasegmental and segmental features for self-evaluating videotaped role plays. Figure 10 presents a sample item from their checklist (p. 405).

Prominence	Did you highlight the words that are important or that show new information? Give two examples and mark the words you stressed.
Word Stress	In multisyllabic words, did you stress the proper syllables(s)? Give five examples and mark the syllable(s) you stressed.

Figure 10. *Sample checklist of suprasegmental and segmental features.*

Miller (2000) provides "My Speech Checklist" that students can fill out as they listen to tapes of their speech. They describe one strength as well as noting errors. From a short selection of suprasegmentals or consonant and vowel sounds, students are asked to check the targets on the list that they will listen for each time. See Figure 11 for a sample item (p. 242).

✔ 2. Finishing Words and Linking

Am I finishing all the words? Am I saying the "ed" and final "s" endings? Am I linking words? Examples of words I heard with missing sounds:

Figure 11. *Sample target checklist.*

Following an initial assessment and using a checklist of pronunciation features as a guide, the instructor can direct students' attention to the features they can practice to improve their particular speech patterns. Later, on a class quiz, students might be asked to "List your three most important personal pronunciation goals—the targeted features that will have the biggest impact on your speech" and "Tell three things that you are doing to move closer to these goals."

Huntley (1999) describes the successful use of reflective journals in which students list weekly pronunciation goals such as "improving intonation while discussing some topic," (p. 18) and discuss how they carry out these goals. Students are encouraged to try a variety of activities that range from holding a conversation with a partner to analyzing the speech patterns of a television personality. Afterward, they record their reflections on what happened. Huntley reports that by raising their awareness in this personally meaningful manner, students were better able to transfer their speech efforts to real situations.

Greenberg (2001) reports more peer correction and increased active listening with the use of speech journals. In this technique, students hand in a weekly report on the following three stated goals and how they achieved them: (a) speech sound goal; (b) idioms, vocabulary goal; (c) word stress, intonation goal. For each goal, students contract to practice and observe themselves saying specific words and phrases. Afterward they report "how and where" they practiced these items and what they observed.

How Can Technology Facilitate Self-Monitoring?

Most students have difficulty noting their errors as they talk. Technology has developed tools to help students analyze and review their speech electronically. Although newer technology exists, tape recorders are still the most available and practical way to capture "real time" speech, allowing learners to listen to their speech as many times as necessary. A tape recorder thus remains an essential tool for teaching self-monitoring and should be used regularly to record home assignments and to prepare oral presentations.

Newer Technology

Although video camcorders are not available for all ESL instructors, video can be an even more powerful medium for feedback because students can watch the paralinguistic aspects of their message as they listen. Students can also observe an important, although less traditionally noted part of effective communication—the appropriate use of the body and gesture in synchrony with stressed elements. Morley (2000) reports that in the program at the University of Michigan, "All in-class presentations are video taped and the 'speech coach' conducts individual and/or small group feedback sessions" (p. 89).

Electronic visual feedback (EVF) matches speech visually against a native model. Although not widely used due to its cost, such technology has proven helpful in the controlled practice of phrases and sentences. Anderson-Hsieh (2000) reported that at Iowa State University "EVF was consistently rated as very useful by the ITAs [international teaching assistants] who reported that seeing their own intonation on the screen simultaneously while they were speaking helped them to understand how their intonation differed from that of native speakers and what they needed to do to sound more native-like" (p. 64).

For sharpening these monitoring skills, digital video disc (DVD) recordings provide impressive possibilities. A disc can be inserted into a computer that plays DVDs and with a click of the mouse students can replay small sections, endlessly viewing or listening and repeating frame-by-frame either their own speech or a speech model. Hopefully, more schools will acquire the capability to convert a VCR videocassette to DVD or to record directly with a DVD camcorder. Although voice recognition by computers is not yet perfected, some new pronunciation programs on CD-ROM incorporate this feature.

Exchanging voiced e-mail messages is an easy and highly effective way for instructors to provide individual feedback and to promote self-monitoring. A student can send a short recorded selection and the teacher can insert comments into the student's recording and send it back.[1]

Other Techniques

There are many ways that students can improve self-monitoring by recording and listening to their own speech. They can record selections from their textbook, a newspaper paragraph, or a short passage that they compose. They can record extemporaneous speech by answering written questions or interviewing a classmate. By turning on a tape recorder in the room, they can record a face-to-face conversation or their part of a phone conversation with a friend or business employee whom they have called for information.

Providing feedback for audio and video tapes of talks and home assignments is crucial for teaching self-monitoring and deserves careful attention. The instructor can listen to a student's tape, record comments, provide speech models, and fill out a checklist. The student is more likely to listen to the tape again if the instructor inserts comments directly into the student's tape after each error. Willenborg (2001) suggests dubbing the student's recording onto a second cassette and inserting teacher comments directly after the error on the dubbed tape. The software for sending voiced e-mail files makes it easy to insert comments into short, student recorded selections.

Although it is not always possible, a conference where the instructor and student review audio or video tapes together is highly instructive. Teachers can stop the tape after each line and encourage students to discover and correct their own errors. Taping the feedback conference with a second tape recorder gives learners a chance to listen again later. Other possibilities for providing feedback follow:

1. Students can self-review tapes and turn in a checklist to the instructor.
2. Pairs or small groups of students can meet after class for peer feedback using a checklist.
3. Graduate students or tutors can provide feedback sessions.
4. A motivating in-class procedure called "strip review" gives everyone a short turn for feedback. After working on a paragraph or dialogue with numbered lines in class, students practice and tape record the whole selection on their own. Each student corrects the whole recording independently and brings the tape to class set to play at a pre-assigned sentence. Then, students review the paragraph by listening to one sentence at a time, in sequence from first to last, and receive feedback on their own sentences.

Conclusions

Teaching students to self-monitor is a vital part of shifting responsibility for developing intelligible speech to the learner. Teachers can weave opportunities for students to self-monitor for core pronunciation features into every stage of learning and practice. When the instructor relinquishes the role of primary arbiter, students learn to discover and correct their own errors. The use of technology to record and review student speech is crucial for building self-sufficiency. As students learn to self-monitor, they acquire tools to continue improving their everyday speech over time after the class has ended. With better control over their pronunciation, learners gain self-confidence and make more progress toward their ultimate speech goals.

Author

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Endnote

[1] Free software, such as PureVoice at <<http://www.eudora.com/purevoice/pluginDL.html>> can be downloaded for listening, recording, editing, and attaching short audio messages to email.

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The Third Symposium on Second Language Writing
will be held on October 11-12, 2002
at Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana, USA.
This year's Symposium, entitled
"Constructing Knowledge:
Approaches to Inquiry in Second Language Writing,"
will feature sixteen scholars who will explore
various ways in which knowledge is constructed,
transformed, disseminated and negotiated
in the field of second language writing.
Presenters will include:
Dwight Atkinson, Linda Lonon Blanton,
Colleen Brice, Christine Pearson Casanave,
Dana Ferris, John Flowerdew, Richard Haswell,
Sarah Hudelson, Ken Hyland, Xiaoming Li,
Rosa Manchon, Paul Kei Matsuda, Susan Parks,
Miyuki Sasaki, Tony Silva and Bob Weissberg.
For more information, please visit:
<http://icdweb.cc.purdue.edu/~silvat/symposium/2002/

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The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Language, Power and Pedagogy: Bilingual Children in the Crossfire

Jim Cummins
Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters, 2000

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In *Language, Power and Pedagogy: Bilingual Children in the Crossfire* Jim Cummins marshals the weight of 25 years of research to counter the current threat to bilingual education programs. As the subtitle of his work implies, the debate tends to be emotive and uninformed. This work argues for an informed, objective analysis of current theory and practice that is focused on the learner. It is a highly accessible overview of the author's major linguistic theories on bilingual education, theories that are tested and refined through ongoing dialogue with researchers and practitioners. Collaborative dialogue is presented as a basis for reshaping educational policy and practice that will ultimately support linguistic and cultural diversity.

Jim Cummins has long been a key figure in bilingual education research. His theories regarding the influence of bilingualism on cognitive growth have been seminal, supported by extensive research on the development of academic language proficiency in second language learners. His prolific output has focused on empowerment issues for minority children, challenging current methods for teaching and assessment as irrelevant and inadequate for a significant portion of the North American population.

This publication is written for the professional, teachers and researchers, with the goal of modifying pedagogical practice. The author includes a wide range of examples taken from all levels of education—kindergarten through 12th grade and adult education. It is, therefore, a book with a mission. Cummins passionately believes in the power of researchers and educators to address issues of equity and to influence the direction of education. Why, he asks, do teachers so rarely encourage bilingual students to take pride in their linguistic skills? Why do educators know so little about the linguistic and cognitive benefits of bilingualism? Why do they know so little about the consequences of first language loss? His book addresses those concerns.

The strength of Cummins' work lies partly in his lucid presentation of ideas and in his ability to conceptualize clear, theoretical models and hypotheses. Because of their pedagogical implications, however, these hypotheses have often been misrepresented by both proponents and antagonists. Cummins, therefore, reviews these theories in the early chapters, presenting fresh data and responding to criticism. Nevertheless he warns his readers that his theories are hypotheses, consistent with empirical data, but not necessarily the last word on these issues.

Cummins' theories remain central to the current debate over bilingual education. For example, in his developmental interdependence hypothesis he argues that literacy skills and knowledge may be transferred from the first language (L1) to the second language (L2) through a common underlying proficiency (CUP). According to this hypothesis, content may profitably be studied in either language. After later research indicated that this transfer of knowledge and skills does not always take place, he refined his theory to apply to those learners who reach a certain threshold in their proficiency in both languages. The threshold theory states that bilingual education may have advantages over monolingual education for these learners, a cautious statement borne out by other research but ignored in political moves to ban bilingual programs.

Cummins has frequently stated that the controversial issues surrounding bilingual education can only be resolved if there is an adequate conceptualization of the nature of language proficiency and of its assessment, particularly in relation to academic achievement. He returns in this text to his influential distinction made earlier (1979) between basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). This theory presents a case for more support in schools for English language learners, stating that these learners need five to seven years to develop the academic skills required in the context-reduced, cognitively demanding situation of the classroom. While research supports this finding, it has been criticized as too narrow, focusing on academic skills, and ignoring sociolinguistic factors that affect learning. In response, Cummins claims that the model is valid for the academic context. In its simplicity, moreover, it conveys a message that is vital in arguing for adequate support for the English language learner.

It could be argued that much of *Language, Power and Pedagogy* consists of a recapitulation and defense of Cummins' earlier work. However, this publication has a greater purpose. First, it is timely to produce an authoritative work that synthesizes key research in the field. Second, this publication does more than review relevant research. It presents a strong case for transforming pedagogical policy and practice and provides vision, ideas, and guidelines to bring about change. In cases where the success of bilingual programs is not borne out, Cummins looks for causes for student failure in areas such as issues of status and discrimination. He does not, however, discuss other possible causes of program failure, such as a lack of resources or the quality of teaching.

An area where Cummins challenges current theory is assessment, a crucial issue for minority students. Focusing on testing in the academic context, he presents a case for reconsidering the relevance of John Oller's (1979) theory of global language proficiency. Cummins argues that in the academic context, where tasks become progressively more abstract and the degree of contextualization decreases, there is a case in some circumstances for discrete point testing of certain core skills. Testing lexical knowledge for example, he claims, is more efficient and cost-effective, and can moreover be an effective means of assessing the broader construct of academic language proficiency.

Specifically, Cummins presents a case for considering the testing of lexical knowledge as a core indicator of general academic language proficiency and particularly literacy, although he counsels the need for criteria of validity and "demonstrable correspondence" (Bachman and Cohen, 1998). Given the dangers of focusing assessment on one discrete skill, this approach would need to be thoroughly researched before implementation, although it would be considerably easier and more economical to administer than a full proficiency test.

Developing the theme of *Negotiating Identities* (1996), the final section of *Language, Power and Pedagogy* sets out a blueprint for a "transformative" pedagogy to foster critical literacy and social diversity through collaborative dialogue.

Given its blend of authoritative research, pedagogical vision, practical frameworks to facilitate pedagogical implementation, and lucid style, there is to my knowledge no text more suitable for promoting linguistic and cultural diversity in North American schools.

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The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Discourse Analysis in the Language Classroom: Volume 1. The Spoken Language

Heidi Riggenbach
Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press. 1999.

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When you think of discourse analysts, do you immediately imagine university professors or maybe graduate students? Are you able to see students in the language learning classroom (maybe your own classroom) as potential discourse analysts? Perhaps you have already considered how language courses might be enriched by the study of language in use as it extends beyond sentence boundaries. If so, then Heidi Riggenbach's book portends to be a work of great value—providing a model whereby language learners can gain communicative competence through their own language research.

Discourse Analysis in the Language Classroom: Volume 1. The Spoken Language is intended to introduce language teachers to class activities in which their students act as "mini-discourse analysts" in order to learn important features of spoken language. Although directed at classroom instructors, the book should also be of interest to materials and curriculum developers.

In the Introduction, Riggenbach provides some background about discourse analysis and the notion of "context." On the assumption that language is intricate and multidimensional yet systematic, Riggenbach claims that the concept of communicative competence is compatible with a discourse orientation to language learning. Drawing on the model for communicative competence developed by Canale and Swain (Canale 1983, Canale & Swain 1980), she outlines how discourse analysis activities are useful in developing each of the four aspects of communicative competence: sociolinguistic, linguistic, discourse, and strategic.

Riggenbach relates this claim to a variety of pedagogical approaches (notional/functional, grammatical, cognitive, etc.) and learner issues (learner motivation, experiential learning, etc.) Riggenbach also carefully addresses the concerns that teachers might have due to their 1) student population, 2) course/syllabus, and 3) teaching style. Furthermore, the annotated bibliography at the end of each chapter is a rich resource for any reader who wants to further pursue the topics discussed in this text.

Having students take an inductive and analytic approach to language using qualitative research methods is the central theme of the book. Therefore, Riggenbach provides a brief overview of the practices that are important for qualitative research along with a description of discourse analysis activities. This approach is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1
Description of Qualitative Research Practices and Discourse Analysis Activities

Step 1: Predict	Learners make predictions about the target discourse structure.
Step 2: Plan	Learners set up a research plan that will produce samples of the target discourse structure.
Step 3: Collect data	Learners observe and/or record the target structure in its discourse environment.
Step 4: Analyze	Learners analyze the data and explain results/make conclusions.
Step 5: Generate	Learners discuss the target discourse structure or produce the target discourse structure in its appropriate context.
Step 6: Review	Learners summarize their findings or reanalyze the data that they produced, asking whether the data conform to their conclusions in Step 4.

As a prelude to these activities, Riggenbach addresses five key issues in teaching language: 1) the importance of addressing *micro-level* aspects of conversation (turn-taking, fillers, etc.), 2) the importance of teaching micro-level and macro-level aspects of *non-conversational genres* such as giving a presentation in an academic setting, 3) the importance of exploring how macro-level *social constructs*, such as belief systems, are revealed and shaped by the ways people speak and write, 4) the research approaches that figure into the discourse analysis activities in the book (conversation analysis, sociolinguistics, speech event analysis, and ethnography), and 5) suggestions for developing original activities. An overview of these key issues is given in Table 2.

Table 2
Key Issues in Language Teaching

Ways of Speaking	*Micro Skills: Pronunciation, Grammar, Vocabulary*
Turn Taking	Word Stress and Pauses
Fillers and Repairs	Reductions and Contractions
Listener Responses/Backchannels	Linking
Initiating Repairs	Problematic Vowels and Consonants
Openings	Present Perfect vs. Simple Past
Closings	Conditionals
Speech Events	Child Language Acquisition
Discussions	Problematic Structures
Storytelling	New Words
Style	Specialized Words
Informative Talks	Transition Words
Attitudes and Assumptions	Building Words
Language Classroom Research	Building Vocabulary
Belief Systems	

Discourse Analysis in the Language Classroom is not without fault. First of all, the methods presented for collecting and analyzing data require students to develop their own transcripts of the spoken data. This activity may be too much of a burden in the context of a language class. Although Riggenbach maintains that the discourse analysis activities are highly motivating, the complicated process of transcription might be considered too demanding for language learners. On the other hand, the student transcript in the appendix indicates that learners are able to transcribe spoken data. Moreover, the very process of transcribing spoken data could be very helpful in the development of listening skills.

Other concerns include how this approach would work 1) in English as a foreign language settings where target language speakers are scarce, and 2) in classes with low-proficiency students, since most of the activities suggested in the book would be too difficult for beginning students. Although Riggenbach does address these issues briefly, these particular concerns might still prevent teachers in those contexts from incorporating discourse analysis into their language classroom.

Nevertheless, it seems that the purpose of the book is more than fulfilled. Riggenbach succeeds in presenting a very innovative and practical application of discourse analysis theory and methods for second language teachers with the goal of developing the communicative competence of language learners. The availability of natural data, technological limitations, and student proficiency levels may require that teachers adapt the suggested activities to their particular situation. But the author anticipates this possibility by offering anecdotes about adaptations teachers have made in testing the approach, thus indicating that such challenges can be overcome. Also, Riggenbach's experiences suggest that such work will be rewarded by increased motivation and a more subtle understanding of the spoken language on the part of language students. For these reasons, I highly recommend this book.

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The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Success in English Teaching
Paul Davies and Eric Pearse
Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000

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Paul Davies and Eric Pearse's *Success in English Teaching* is an informative teacher-training text that novice teachers should find fun and motivating. The strength of this book is definitely its practicality and useful teaching suggestions. Experienced teachers can easily link the situations explained in the book to their own classrooms and implement the authors' suggestions, while new teachers with little or no teaching experience can reflect on their own classroom language learning experiences. As the authors point out, many English as a second language teachers nowadays are non-native speakers of English; this book was written to help and encourage such teachers, especially those with limited teaching experience. In addition, the types of students addressed by the authors range from elementary school to adult learners.

In Chapter 1, the authors define "success in English teaching" as the kind of teaching that produces students who can communicate well in English. A checklist of characteristics of successful English teachers, according to the book's framework, is given at the beginning of this chapter. Throughout the book, the authors emphasize that communication should be the main objective of the language classroom. It is crucial, for example, to establish English as the classroom language, and the authors explain at length why and how this goal can be achieved. Several practical ideas are given for increasing learner participation and motivation. The authors even go beyond the classroom by stating that there should be coordination among teachers, and suggest ways teachers can work together more effectively in a language teaching program

In Chapter 2, the authors focus on teaching new language items—vocabulary, functions, and grammar—and how to teach these communicatively. They then give more suggestions in Chapter 3 for creating meaningful language practice exercises and activities for those new items, including ways to give feedback to students. Exercises that demand accuracy are distinguished from practice in fluency and automaticity, and oral activities are discussed separately from written ones. Unfortunately, more weight is placed on the oral activities, which can be problematic for teachers who have to deal more with writing.

Chapters 4-6 cover traditional topics found in most teaching methodology books: vocabulary, listening/speaking, and reading/writing, respectively. However, instead of using the common label "the four skills," the authors prefer calling listening and speaking "spoken communication skills" and reading and writing "written communication skills." But no matter what they are called, the content of the chapters offers sound suggestions on how to teach and practice the four skills, with the integration of all four at the end of Chapter 6.

The topic of language practice continues in Chapter 7, which covers review and remedial work. Here, second language acquisition terms such as "input," "cognitive hypotheses," and "subconscious and conscious processes" are introduced. The activities are, as always, interesting, but unfortunately, the glossary in the back of the book does not include all of the potentially problematic terms.

Chapter 8 is on planning, syllabi, and classroom management; the latter topic is discussed in great detail, which may be useful for inexperienced teachers. Chapter 9 deals with how to select and use textbooks. A typical language textbook is teased apart and teachers are given suggestions on the most effective ways to use a text. The topic of lesson planning is discussed here as well. The authors turn back to teaching materials in Chapter 10 on teaching aids, which range from blackboards, realia, and audio/video to mime and gestures.

The last two chapters are the most theoretical chapters in the book. In Chapter 11 on testing, the authors briefly explain complex measurement concepts like validity and reliability, then turn back to practical issues such as writing and improving tests. The topic of evaluation is touched upon briefly at the end of the chapter. Since the topic of testing can be complicated, the authors' attempt to combine theory with practice in Chapter 11 deserves applause. The book ends with a chapter on an historical survey of language teaching approaches and methods.

As stated above, the book includes a great deal of practical information. Sometimes, teaching ideas are bulleted under a separate heading, but most of the time they are embedded within the text. At the end of each chapter, in addition to a summary of the main points, a project with a clear purpose and set of procedures is suggested for teachers to try with their students. Within each chapter after the end of every major heading, several questions are posed to readers, stimulating them to think about the arguments that the authors make. Even though the book can be considered a "how to" book on teaching, the authors, by asking these questions, show that they do not encourage readers to blindly follow their "recipes." As they answer these questions, teachers can think about the appropriateness of the authors' suggestions for their own students before implementing any of the suggestions.

Even though the book is highly recommended for novice teachers, it is not without flaws. One is the organization of the book. According to the authors, the book is divided into two parts. The first part, Chapters 1 to 7, covers topics relevant to the classroom, while the second part, Chapters 8 to 12, covers broader issues about language teaching. But summaries of each chapter reveal that the book could have been organized in a different way with more related topics together. All topics are more or less related to the classroom, which blurs the line drawn between Chapters 7 and 8. Moreover, the inclusion of Chapter 12 is not very logical. In my opinion, this is the weakest chapter of the book since a complete and updated survey of the field (the history of language teaching) cannot be accomplished in one chapter. The theme of practical ideas on language teaching is carried through Chapter 11, but the last chapter seems better suited to a more theoretical language methodology textbook.

Another, perhaps more serious flaw I see in this book is in regard to the use of classroom communication excerpts. In several places, the authors use excerpts of conversations between teachers and students as examples or support for their arguments. There are no explanations about whether these excerpts are taken from an actual corpus that the authors compiled, whether they borrow them from an existing corpus, or whether these excerpts are simply fictional and crafted by the authors. Notations used in these excerpts such as capital letters and dots are also unexplained. As all the excerpts contain only successful teaching situations, skeptical readers may find them too good to be true. It is crucial for readers to know the source of these excerpts; only then will we truly be convinced by the authors' arguments.

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Targeting Pronunciation: The Intonation, Sounds, and Rhythm of American English

Sue F. Miller
Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 2000

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Targeting Pronunciation is a welcome contribution to the array of texts that address the pronunciation challenges of intermediate and advanced ESL students. This text's strength lies in its effective pedagogy: First, it motivates students to take responsibility for their own learning, then assists them in identifying their own unique pronunciation difficulties and formulating attainable goals ("targets"). The book then takes the students through classroom-tested sequences of lessons in pursuit of those goals.

Targeting Pronunciation is intended to serve as the primary text for a pronunciation course. Four audiocassettes, an 86-page teacher's manual, and a Web site supplement the textbook. Although the textbook could be used for self-study, the author recommends that it be used with the professional guidance of an instructor.

The author acknowledges the leadership of pioneers in pronunciation instruction such as Judy Gilbert and Joan Morley, whose influence is apparent in this text's learner-centered approach and in the careful scaffolding from controlled practice to communicative practice. Priority is given to suprasegmentals since, in the author's view, stress and intonation play a huge role in speech intelligibility.

The teacher will find a wealth of exercises in *Teaching Pronunciation,* including listening discrimination, self-monitoring and peer-monitoring, and multi-sensory activities involving the students' hands, arms, and feet. These types of exercises reflect the author's conviction that listening discrimination precedes accurate oral production, that self-monitoring increases the chances of a permanent improvement in the students' pronunciation, and that kinesthetic activity (or movement) reinforces speech rhythms. The vocabulary and topics that appear in practice sentences have been carefully selected for their usefulness in everyday conversational English.

The course follows a carefully designed sequence, starting with word stress and end-of-sentence intonation and ending with complex intonation patterns, while covering segmentals (vowels, then consonants) in the middle of the textbook.

The first sections of this textbook reflect the wisdom that comes from decades of teaching experience. The sections "To the teacher" and "To the student" and Chapter 1, "Improving Your Pronunciation," are devoted to instilling a healthy perspective toward the accent improvement process. Here the author motivates students to take responsibility for their own progress, yet guides them to set realistic goals. A goals survey, auditory discrimination diagnostic test, speech sample elicitation, and advice on "Making Your New Pronunciation a Habit" are valuable features.

Chapters 2 through 12 raise awareness of intonation, sounds, and patterns in American English speech. Succinct, understandable explanations are reinforced by numerous form-focused exercises throughout each chapter, reflecting the author's view that a pronunciation course aims to modify speech behavior. Each chapter concludes with a "Finishing Up" section, consisting of a few form-focused exercises for review, self-monitoring exercises, suggestions for communicative practice inside and outside the classroom ("Talk Times"), and homework assignments. These latter exercises encourage the student to incorporate newly-learned pronunciation features into everyday speech. Creative and practical, they are one of *Targeting Pronunciation*'s strongest points.

The first target, word stress, is addressed in Chapter 2. Minimal pairs help students aurally distinguish between words such as "COmedy" and "comMITtee"; guidelines help students predict where word stress falls; and end-of-sentence intonation patterns are covered. Chapter 3 covers the linking of adjacent words, the completion of words and syllables, and the concepts of thought groups and focus words. Chapter 4 introduces the notion of sentence rhythm, stress on content words and focus words, and lack of stress on structure (or function) words.

The first discussion of segmentals (as opposed to suprasegmentals) appears in Chapter 5, in which the reduction of unstressed vowels, the schwa, and the critical difference between "can" and "can't" are taught. In addition, the 15 "clear" (non-reduced) vowels are briefly introduced. Chapter 6 continues the discussion of segmentals with a look at the vocal tract, an explanation of voicing, and an introduction to stops and continuants. Chapter 7 addresses finer aspects of segmental production such as vowel lengthening before voiced consonants, linking of vowels, and consonant clusters.

The emphasis on suprasegmentals resumes in Chapter 8, in which speech is likened to a kind of song with its own melody. Here the student learns to associate emotions with pitch contours and to recognize when an utterance is finished or unfinished. Chapter 9 discusses the special intonation patterns for compound nouns, descriptive phrases, phrasal verbs, and names. Chapter 10 focuses on important word endings, such as past tense markers, plural markers, possessive markers, and the third-person-singular marker on present tense verbs. Chapter 11 revisits linking across word boundaries, the reduction of vowels, the dropping of consonants in informal speech, and the flap. The final chapter, Chapter 12, revisits thought groups and concludes with a self-assessment inventory.

Appendix A consists of a glossary of terms, which is somewhat brief but adequate considering how well *Targeting Pronunciation* manages to communicate a wealth of phonetic information without using specialized terminology. Appendix B contains important checklists, charts, and forms presented in the previous chapters. Appendices C and D are supplementary lessons on consonants and vowels, respectively, a welcome addition since segmentals receive rather short shrift in the main chapters. The lack of an index, however, compounds the problem of a vague table of contents; it is hard to locate specific topics in this textbook.

Generally, however, the reader will find the textbook pleasantly readable. The conventions the author has used to represent word stress, voicing, and so forth, are intuitive and effective, and clearly explained in the "Key to Symbols." The few graphics sprinkled throughout the book serve as useful illustrations to help students visualize certain concepts such as "cluster."

Besides providing an answer key, the teachers' manual explains the teaching philosophy underlying the exercises and gives helpful advice about classroom issues such as responding to student errors. The course Web site displays an answer key and additional practice material.

Overall, *Targeting Pronunciation* is a motivating textbook that brings the students into partnership with the teacher. Teacher flexibility may be limited by the unique sequence of the textbook, but the likelihood of students improving their pronunciation is high given the nature of the content, the number of purposeful form-focused exercises, the "Talk Times" suggestions, and the constructive tips that encourage learners throughout the text.

The
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REVIEW

Our Global Village (2nd ed.)

Angela Labarca and James Hendrickson
Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace, 1999

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Our Global Village is an intermediate-level reader with a strong cross-cultural focus designed to improve students' reading skills, increase their vocabulary, and develop their oral and written proficiency. Arranged into 14 separate chapters, beginning with simpler subject matter and moving towards more difficult topics, the text encourages students to reflect upon their own lives while becoming acquainted with their classmates and the world community. Personal topics such as childhood, family ties, and home entertainment encourage the students to become independent readers; in addition, *Our Global Village* includes activities on the topics of foreign travel, business affairs, and the greenhouse effect in order to engage readers in small-group and community projects.

A distinct strength of *Our Global Village* is its ability to directly address and accommodate the needs of the individual reader, which it accomplishes through a variety of learning activities and reading strategy instruction. For example, the text provides strategies on how to draw out information from a reading; students are asked to identify the main ideas of a reading passage and then to cluster those ideas together with the aid of graphs, tables, and charts. These types of activities help build the students' confidence in reading unfamiliar works in English by reminding them of some of their first language reading strengths. The text also provides opportunities for students to use English to express themselves in conversation and writing. The majority of these learning activities are open-ended, never requiring specific responses, thus enabling students to share their thoughts, feelings, and opinions with their classmates in response to what they have read.

In addition to encouraging individual responses to the content of the readings, *Our Global Village* highlights the necessity of an interactive classroom by incorporating small group discussions on cross-cultural topics. In the text's "To the Instructor" section, Labarca and Hendrickson state that the "readings consist of a collection of interesting slices of life from different regions of our interdependent world community—our 'global village'" (p. ix). The readings attempt to represent the various cultural backgrounds that commonly exist within an English as a second language classroom. The small-group discussions encourage students to develop their knowledge and appreciation of other countries and cultures as well as gain greater insight into their own backgrounds.

Another positive component of *Our Global Village* is the strong emphasis placed on vocabulary development. The text contains seven vocabulary reviews—one after every thematic unit. Each review provides five different activities for the words and phrases in the reading selections, ranging from associating words in categories to crossword puzzles. The vocabulary items are also listed at the end of every chapter and divided into grammatical categories (i.e., nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, proper nouns, and expressions). These vocabulary lists are a useful resource for students and teachers alike because such lists support the authors' goal of encouraging students to become independent and proficient learners of English.

Due to the close attention paid to vocabulary development, some instructors may be concerned that the text strays from its other stated purpose, which is to improve students' reading, writing, and oral skills. But, we should keep in mind the frustrations of our students that stem from their limited vocabulary. Although the emphasis placed on these three areas of the text may be less than the weight of the vocabulary sections, students want and need vocabulary development strategies in order to improve their writing, increase their reading comprehension, and decrease their dependency on pocket computer dictionaries. These frustrations can be alleviated, and students can strive individually and collectively towards success with the help of *Our Global Village*.

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REVIEW

English Extra

Grace Tanaka and Kay Ferrell
White Plains, NY: Prentice-Hall, 1998

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English Extra is designed to meet the needs of adult students in their daily lives. It is an excellent book for beginning-level students because of the colorful pictures it provides to present vocabulary or initiate conversations. *English Extra* also encourages students to interact with one another through a variety of activities such as interviews.

The text consists of 15 units, beginning with the family and home, then moving into more complex scenarios such as the workplace and the town or city. Every unit begins with a conversation or a short paragraph and colorful illustrations, where students are introduced to new vocabulary via listening and reading activities. Then, each unit's practice sessions lead students to write target vocabulary or practice the conversation collaboratively. Further sections guide the students to work more independently on the content, vocabulary, and language functions for real-life situations, such as filling out forms and applications or making shopping lists. Information gap activities, which have students interact with partners to elicit new information, begin after Unit 6. The last page of each unit helps students check their learning by listing the functions, vocabulary, and forms they have practiced in the unit.

Due to the book's extensive paired conversation practices and cooperative activities, it is an excellent text for teachers aiming to create a cooperative atmosphere in their classrooms. The book also gives students a certain amount of control of the content when teachers allow them to share their real-life stories or experiences related to the topics. Most of the topics are tied to daily life, so students should be very enthusiastic in discussing their own stories or experiences.

English Extra comes with an activity book, allowing students to work independently in or out of class. The teacher's manual suggests effective ways of presentation and contains follow-up activities. There is an audiocassette to enhance pronunciation and listening skills; these supplementary materials help students improve their competence and performance.

The most important strength of the book is the use of authentic words and phrases, in contrast to other beginning textbooks that have overly simplified language. In some beginning textbooks, uncommon or strange vocabulary is often used to simplify the text, which limits communicative abilities. *English Extra* contains ordinary and authentic words and phrases that are used in real conversation; however, it does also provide a few low-frequency words when these words are important for daily life.

English Extra has many strengths and should be very effective in the communicative classroom, but it also contains a weakness that teachers need to be aware of. The story or conversation that introduces each unit's presentation of vocabulary or structure might confuse some students if these structures are too complex and students have no prior knowledge of those forms. To work around this, teachers could present the unit's simplest features before the complex ones, so students develop their knowledge without spending too much time trying to figure out unknown words or structures. When students have gained confidence in their basic knowledge, they may then progress to the more difficult elements easily.

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

The Basic Oxford Picture Dictionary Literacy Program —Student Book

Garnet Templin-Imel with Shirley Brod
New York: Oxford University Press, 1996

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The Basic Oxford Picture Dictionary Literacy Program is a complete and versatile course intended specifically for young adult beginners of English literacy and adults who lack basic literacy skills, either because their first language uses a non-Roman alphabet or because they have not participated in formal schooling.

The Basic Oxford Picture Dictionary Literacy Program—Student Book and *The Basic Oxford Picture Dictionary* constitute the core of the course. Supplemental materials are available, such as *Picture Cards*, *Wall Charts* and *Transparencies*, as well as *The Basic Oxford Picture Dictionary Workbook* for more advanced beginning students.

The student book opens with a "pre-literacy" section that helps the student develop the ability to visually discriminate shapes and directions. It includes a number of pages that prompt students to trace letters and to follow directional guiding arrows to move from straight, horizontal, and vertical lines to curves needed to form symbols, to reproduce handwriting, and to eventually write on their own. This is an optional section that can be used as student literacy levels warrant.

After the pre-literacy section, the student text is comprised of 16 units, beginning with an introductory unit that focuses on classroom-related language and followed by Units 2 through 16, which introduce the learner to basic skills and topics such as the alphabet, numbers, colors, family relationships, housing, weather, time of day, days of the week, months of the year, form language, and money. Each unit begins with an introductory page that presents that unit's skill and is then divided into Part A and Part B. As explained in the Introduction to the *Teacher's Book* (pp. vi-viii), Part A of each unit introduces specific skills and is comprised of a variety of activities: (a) "Practice" pages providing skill development; (b) "Handwriting" pages beginning with numbers and letters of the alphabet and progressing to words from the units and the students' own vocabulary; (c) "Look and Think" pages asking the student to discriminate among and categorize shapes; (d) "Listening" pages focusing on such practical activities as telephone numbers, prices or spelling of names; and (e) "Form Language" pages giving sequenced practice in filling out forms.

In Part B of each unit, the text provides practical contexts in which students can apply these basic skills. Some of the interesting features of Part B are (a) "Dictionary Skills" introducing vocabulary and useful practice contexts; (b) "Reading" pages permitting the student to apply the material to real-life experience; (c) "Life Skills" pages using the new words in practical situations; (d) "Talk About It" pages that include clarification techniques and practice dialogues; and (e) "Practice" pages providing structured exercises.

In Part B there are also "Working with Words" pages meant to provide students with more challenging and stimulating language-manipulation exercises that the teacher can use for more advanced students or fast learners.

The Literacy Program provides ample opportunities to practice all four skills, beginning with listening and speaking; once students have progressed through the process of recognizing shapes, numbers, and letters (the pre-literacy level), they are introduced to handwriting and beginning reading and writing.

The Literacy Program promotes a whole-language, competency-based approach with an emphasis on speaking and listening, while also developing student literacy. It is intended to teach practical and reality-based language that prepares students for oral communication in real-life situations. It is student-oriented, eliciting and building on what students already know while introducing new topics and skills in each unit. Some activities are designed to provide students with opportunities to select and add their own words and build their own sentences. Other activities ask students with very limited oral language skills to draw pictures as a means of communication. Another feature that appears in the second half of the text is a sound/symbol correspondence chart of consonants presented in the lesson content.

I have had the opportunity to use *The Literacy Program* during the course of my English as a second language practicum, and I have also observed an effective, experienced ESL master teacher use it successfully in her beginning/literacy adult ESL class. Student response to the topics and the material has been very positive. Generally, students have displayed genuine interest in the activities and exercises and an eagerness to learn and use language that relates to real-life situations. *The Literacy Program*, when used in conjunction with sound teaching methods and a large amount of enthusiasm, is an excellent tool for the beginning/literacy level ESL classroom.

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The CATESOL Journal is the official journal of the California Association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (CATESOL). It is a refereed journal reflecting the interests and concerns of the organization's membership. The journal is published annually and is indexed and abstracted in both the online and print versions of LLBA and ERIC.

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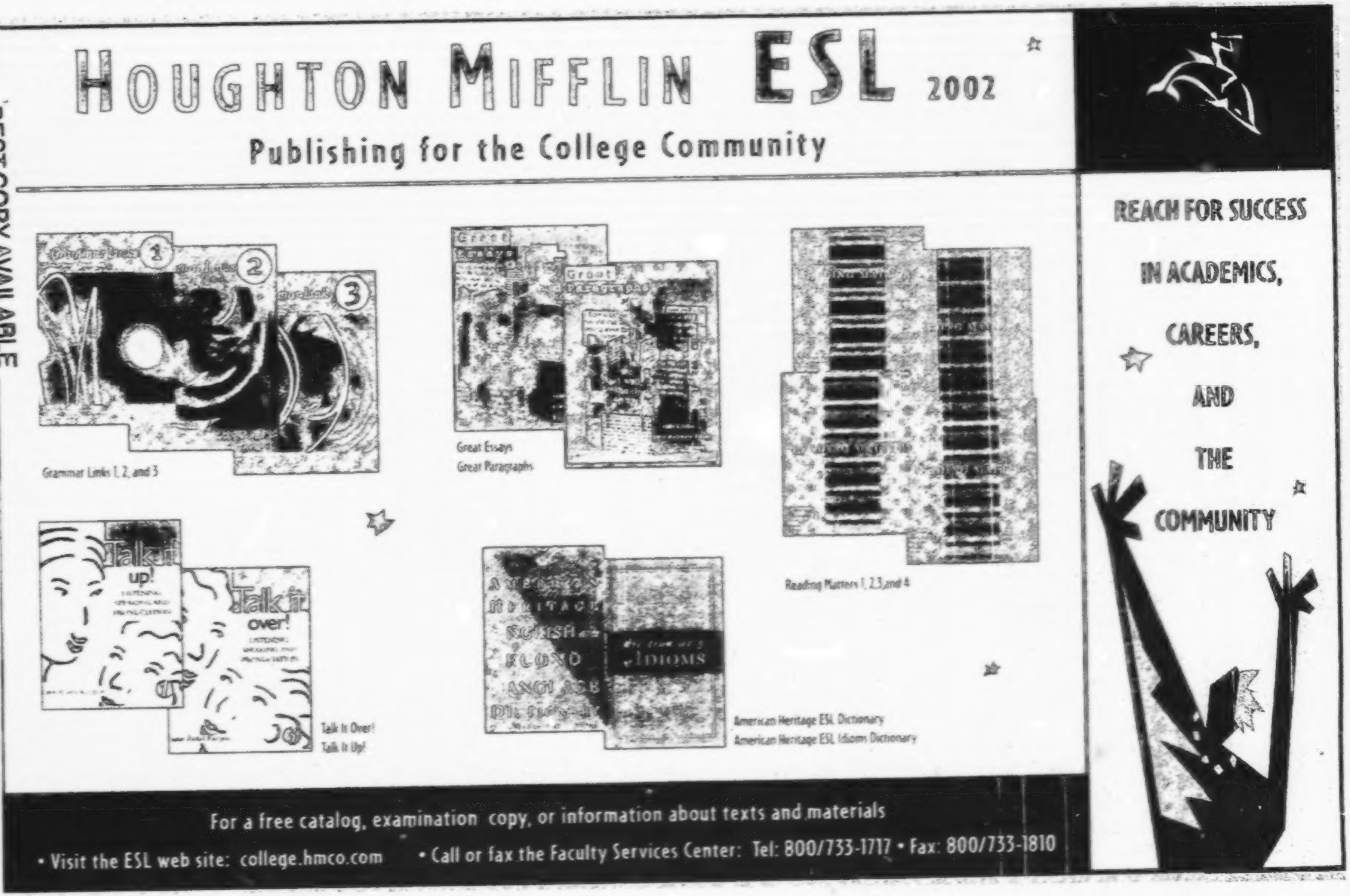

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